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ABSTRACT

The major purposes of this study were to describe and explain, and then to generate grounded theory about the administrative organization, processes, and behavior in an innovative senior high school. The school selected for the study was nationally known for leadership in implementing individualized learning programs compatible with the model of secondary education developed at the Wisconsin Research and Development Center. Over a three-week period the data were gathered by means of an ethnographic case study utilizing participant observation, open-ended interviews, and document analysis. The data are presented in terms of six field propositions dealing with the administrative organization, administrative processes, and administrative behavior. The propositions concern decentralization, the teacher advisor program, the decision-making process, the staff selection process, and leadership behavior. Relevant theories are described and the data are analyzed in terms of the theories. Theories found to be relevant to the data included those related to change, organization, role, leadership, decision-making, motivation, climate, and the administrative process. (Author/MLF)

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Technical Report No. 547

AN ETHNOGRAPHIC CASE STUDY OF THE ADMINISTRATIVE ORGANIZATION, PROCESSES, AND BEHAVIOR IN AN INNOVATIVE SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL

by

Lee Roy Brittenham

Report from the Project on
Studies of Administration and Organization for Instruction

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June 1980

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- conducting and synthesizing research to clarify effective approaches to teaching students basic skills and concepts
- developing and demonstrating improved instructional strategies, processes, and materials for students, teachers, and school administrators
- providing assistance to educators which helps transfer the outcomes of research and development to improved practice in local schools and teacher education institutions

The Wisconsin Research and Development Center is supported with funds from the National Institute of Education and the University of Wisconsin.

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ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

"Rich in experience, lacking in education" would have provided a succinct description of me in the spring of 1978. Noel Watkins called Hood River, Oregon, one morning and suggested that [illegible]over the educational deficit. I suspect that others were involved behind the scene--John Daresh, Glenn Neiner, and Chuck Bowe, who was in Wisconsin at the time. Now, in the spring of 1980, I am deeply grateful to these people who prompted me and promoted my course with Professor James M. Lipham.

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Abstract

AN ETHNOGRAPHIC CASE STUDY OF THE ADMINISTRATIVE ORGANIZATION, PROCESSES, AND BEHAVIOR IN AN INNOVATIVE SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL

Lee Roy Brittenham

Under the Supervision of Professor James M. Lipham

The major purposes of this study were: (1) to describe and explain the administrative organization, processes, and behavior; and (2) to generate grounded theory about the administrative organization, processes, and behavior in an innovative senior high school. The school selected for this study was nationally known for leadership in implementing individualized learning programs compatible with the model of secondary education developed at the Wisconsin Research and Development Center. The data were gathered by means of an ethnographic case study utilizing participant observation, open-ended interviews, and document analysis. The researcher, together with two co-researchers, spent three weeks on site and participated in the social system of the school. At the end of the first week, the researchers retreated from the field and determined some tentative hypotheses based on initial data. Those working hypotheses were further tested against the data collected over the next two weeks, and then refined, limited, and finally stated as propositions. This study provided a clear understanding of the administrative organization, processes, and

behavior within an innovative senior high school, the impact of the administration on the school, and generalizable propositions regarding the administrative organization, processes, and behaviors necessary for an innovative senior high school to be successful.

The major conclusions of the study were as follows:

1. Modifications are required in existing change models, including the recognition that leaders go through philosophy, vision, and assessment phases before engaging members in the initial evaluation phase of change.
2. Organic organizations can also exhibit high levels of production and efficiency.
3. The modification or creation of new roles within a school requires interreference congruence regarding the expectations and value of the anticipated role.
4. Leadership styles and stages interact dynamically with change phases and extent of decision involvement, hence the stages and styles should be congruent with each change phase.
5. In schools that allow for consensus decision making, the principal's legitimate involvement in the decision-making process must be accepted.
6. The level of decision involvement must be appropriate for each phase of the change process.

7. The degree of decision involvement should be established by assessing the staff's desired level of participation.
8. Motivating factors can become so intense that they cause dissatisfaction and may even become hygiene factors.
9. Decentralized organizations and principal leadership behaviors can create an open climate in the school.
10. Organizational change is most functional when leadership styles and stages are congruent with a school's current change phase and degree of decision involvement.

As a result of these conclusions, numerous implications for practice and further research were suggested.

APPROVED: _____

DATE: April 23, 1980

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

The purpose of this study was to gain an understanding of the administrative organization, administrative processes, and administrative behavior in a school that had engaged in educational programming for individual students at the secondary level. The research was conducted as a continuing effort to identify factors in schools that provide educational programs geared to each student's interests, motivational patterns, learning styles, and career goals.

Previous efforts to gain understandings related to individualized secondary schools were conducted focusing on four specific variables: decision making, change, facilitative environments, and staff development (Daresh, 1978; Lehr, 1979; Neiner, 1978; Speed, 1979; Watkins, 1978). While these studies helped foster a better understanding of senior high schools that individualize education, the studies were limited in scope to single variables. This study and two companion studies (Artis, 1980; Zimman, 1980), through the use of ethnographic techniques, was intended to close gaps in understanding such schools by investigating the research sites on a wholistic basis.

Studies of this type in schools have been completed by those who believe "the social scientist cannot understand human behavior without understanding the framework within which the subjects

interpret their thoughts, feelings, and actions" (Wilson, 1977). Ethnographic studies such as those by Wolcott (1973), Cusick (1973), Jackson (1968), and Sarasan (1971) have used participant observation and open-ended interviewing to gain a comprehensive view of the organization and operation of schools.

The data were analyzed for relationships to existing formal theory, either to confirm the theory or to suggest variations and to advance new grounded theory (Glaser & Strauss, 1967).

This chapter gives the background of the study, a statement of the problem, the significance of the study, and an overview of the study.

Background of the Study

This study and companion studies (Artis, 1980; Zimman, 1980) grew out of a recognized need for information about the operation and conceptualization of secondary schools attempting to renew and improve their educational programs. An earlier study (Maier, 1978) had indicated a high level of interest among secondary educators toward new or renewed attempts to provide individualized programs in their schools but a perceived low level of feasibility. The present study, with the companion studies (Artis, 1980; Zimman, 1980) and the studies of Daresh (1978), Neiner (1978), and Watkins (1978), identified, described, and explored the various organizational structures, processes, and behavior in secondary schools

that provide educational programs tailored to meet the needs of individual students.

Statement of the Problem

The ethnographic approach was used to analyze the administrative organization, administrative processes, and administrative behavior in a secondary school in order to obtain a comprehensive view of the operation of the school. This analysis enabled grounded theory to be generated concerning the administrative aspects of the school.

The objectives of the research were to describe and explain the administrative organization, administrative processes, and behavior in the operation of a secondary school and to generate grounded theory concerning the operation of the school. The grounded theories were analyzed in relation to existing literature pertaining to change, decision making, leadership, motivation, organization, climate, and role theory. Congruence of the findings with theory was the issue, and in some cases new theory was suggested.

Significance of the Study

This study was designed to investigate the administrative organization, processes, and behaviors in an innovative senior high school that attempted to individualize instruction. The study was deemed to be significant for the following reasons:

1. The findings described and explained the administrative organization, processes, and behaviors in a selected senior high school.
2. The findings generated grounded theoretical propositions about the administrative organization, processes, and behaviors in a selected senior high school.
3. The findings supported existing formal theory, highlighted needed emphasis of some aspects of existing formal theory, and identified needed modifications of some aspects of existing formal theory.
4. The findings were believed to have relevance for practicing school administrators by identifying organizational structures and corresponding processes and behaviors necessary to establish alternative administrative arrangements.
5. The findings were believed to have relevance for researchers by identifying important variables related to administrative organization, processes, and behaviors in a selected senior high school.

Overview of the Study

This chapter included an introduction to the study, the background and statement of the problem, and the significance of the study.

Chapter II includes the design and methodology of the study. Chapter III presents and describes the data. Chapter IV includes a description of the relevant theories and an analysis of the data in terms of the theories. Chapter V gives an overview of the study, a summary of major findings and conclusions, and the implications for further research and practice.

CHAPTER II

DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

This chapter contains a description of the design and methodology of the study. There are six sections including: a rationale for the methodology utilized, a description of the school selection process, a summary of the data collection methods, a delineation of the data analyses process, and a consideration of the limitations of the study.

Rationale for the Methodology Utilized

This study used ethnographic research techniques to gain an understanding of the administrative organization, administrative processes, and administrative behavior within an innovative secondary school. Methods included in-depth interviews, daily observations, and document analysis.

Ethnographic field studies have been described by Kerlinger (1973) as "ex post facto scientific inquiries aimed at discovering the relations and interactions among sociological, psychological, and educational variables in real social structures." Ethnography seeks understanding through qualitative methods, such as participant observations, open-ended interviews, and personal documents.

Ethnographic case studies focus on two levels- description and explanation. The ethnographer is on the scene to describe what

he or she sees, hears, and reads, and then expands his or her descriptions from accounts of the situation by the subjects, usually given in lengthy in-depth interviews. In addition, the researcher is constantly trying to make sense of what he or she observes by seeking the subject's explanation of what has occurred. Thus, the situation is fully described through the senses of the researcher and subjects as well as explained from both points of view (Cusick, 1974).

The ethnographer is trying to develop rational explanations of human action. Wehlage (1978) declared the purpose of field study research as being interested in developing generalizations which describe what people think, and given their perception of reality, why they act the way they do. In the process, the researcher is trying to discover what it is about the structure of schools which limits and shapes and makes more likely the constructions people acquire.

This study used the ethnographic field methodology including participant observation, open-ended interviews, and document analysis to analyze the administrative organization, administrative processes, and administrative behavior in an innovative high school in order to develop a comprehensive view of the administration impact on the school. This analysis enabled grounded theory to be generated concerning the administrative aspects of secondary schools. Glaser and Strauss (1967) defined grounded theory as being generated

from the data observed and collected through rigorous research. Hypotheses and concepts came from the data and were systematically worked out in relation to the data during the course of the research. Categories, properties, and hypotheses about administrative organization, administrative processes, and administrative behavior emerged from the data. Once developed, incidents applicable to each category were compared; categories and properties were integrated; limitations were defined concerning the developing theory; and finally, grounded theory about administrative organization, administrative processes, and administrative behavior was written. While in most instances, the grounded theory confirmed existing formal theory about administrative organization, administrative processes, and administrative behaviors, some modifications of existing formal theory emerged and some new theory was developed.

Selection of the School

One senior high school was chosen for this ethnographic case study. Concurrently, two other senior high schools were selected for companion field studies. These schools were chosen because they had a reputation for being innovative and in the forefront of individualized instruction.

A careful nationwide search was conducted to determine the three schools to be used in the study. Final selection of the three innovative schools was made based on the school's having at least five of the following operational criteria derived from the

list of program components for IGE/Secondary (Klausmeier, 1979):

1. Comprehensive Objective 1--Administrative Arrangements. Decision-making groups were formed that included district committees and councils and also building committees and councils.

2. Comprehensive Objective 2--Organization for Instruction and Advisory Arrangements. Instruction and Advisory Units were formed consisting of 50 to 200 students and a cooperative team of two to five teachers, usually in the required curricular areas or courses.

3. Comprehensive Objective 3--Instructional Programming for the Individual Student. This objective has three facets which includes planning each student's individual programs, providing objective based instruction that meets the requirements of the planned program, and evaluating the student's progress in achieving desired outcomes for further direction.

4. Comprehensive Objective 4--Curricular Arrangements. A curriculum was arranged that was sufficiently comprehensive and flexible so that each student, with the guidance of the student's teacher advisor and parents, could take a total program of courses and other activities that was suited to the individual student's educational needs and other characteristics, and that also met school, district, and state requirements.

5. Comprehensive Objective 5--Community Learning Experiences and Work Experiences. A program of community learning activities

and work experiences directly related to the characteristics of the school population and the community was planned, implemented, and evaluated at district, school, and teaching levels.

6. Comprehensive Objective 6--Evaluation. Records were kept on students' progress toward attaining the objectives of the units, classes, or courses in which they were enrolled, and each student's total educational program was monitored and improved through systematic evaluation.

7. Comprehensive Objective 7--Student Decision-Making Arrangements. Students progressively assumed responsibility for working independently with a lesser amount of adult direction and control. They also assumed responsibility for making decisions about their course objectives and activities, their complete educational programs, and their career preparation, including community learning activities and work experiences.

8. Comprehensive Objective 8--Home-School-Community Relations. Cooperative efforts and effective communications between the school and the community were fostered.

9. Comprehensive Objective 9--Internal and External Support Arrangements. The environment for learning and instruction within the school and for work and nonwork educational experiences in the community was enriched through the intellectual, technical, and material support provided by the school and district, and by external agencies, such as the state education agency and teacher education institutions.

10. Comprehensive Objective 10--Continuing Research and Development. Student learning and personality development; curricular, instructional, and student advising arrangements; and administrative-organizational arrangements were improved through continuous research and development conducted by school personnel and cooperating individuals and agencies.

Only senior high schools with grades 9 through 12 were considered. Each of the three schools selected for the companion research indicated some implementation of five or more of the above components of individualized schooling. An initial list of possible senior high schools was developed through an analysis of the work of Daresh (1978), Neiner (1978), and Watkins (1978). Additionally, professional journals were examined, national and state agencies were contacted for recommendations concerning senior high schools that might be appropriate for this study. Approximately 15 schools were identified as possible research sites.

Based on this list, telephone contact was made with each potential school. During the initial telephone contact, the researchers asked first how many of the operational criteria the school satisfied, and second, whether the principal was receptive toward participating in this research project. Abstracts which outlined the nature of the proposed research (Appendix A) were sent to those schools that met the criteria and were interested in participating in the study. The list of schools was then narrowed to eight.

Members of the research team visited the eight selected schools. Final decisions regarding the participating schools were based on their initial interest, perceptions of the research team after a visit, and the demographic characteristics of the school. The final three schools were chosen for their ability to meet the comprehensive components, their willingness to participate, their geographic location, and the size of their student population.

The site selected for this study was a school in a large suburban area with a student body of approximately 1,900. The two other schools selected for companion studies were in a large urban area and a mid-sized suburban one with school populations of approximately 2,800 students and 900 students, respectively.

The proper district level administrators were contacted either directly by the research team or indirectly through the building principal. The visit was scheduled so that the researcher and the companion researchers could spend three full weeks on site.

Description of the Selected School

This section contains the normative description of West High School. First, the city and school are described. Then, the school program is described in terms of the ten comprehensive objectives identified by Klausmeier (1979) as interrelated components of schools that individualize education.

City Background. West High School is located in a growing suburban community. The community has approximately 75,000 residents

with substantial growth monthly and continued growth predicted through the 1980s.

Most of the community is comprised of families at or above the middle income level. The community has some lower-income housing as a planned component; however the families that live in the low-income housing represent a small percentage of the total population.

The community has a unified school district, kindergarten through 12th grade. Citizens also have close access to a community college and university.

School Background. West High School is one of several high schools in the district. The district's decentralized administrative structure allows each school the autonomy to decide its own direction and priorities.

The 1979-80 school year was the fifth year of operation for West High School. The school opened with one grade level, the 9th, and added a grade level each succeeding year. The 1978-79 school year was the first year that the school had a graduating class.

The student body is representative of the community at large. The majority of the students are white, middle-class. Approximately 10 percent of the students are Black, Chicano, or Oriental.

The philosophy of the school is to individualize educational programs to meet the needs of each student's learning abilities.

Each dimension of the school's program was considered in its relationship to the comprehensive objectives for individualizing education as proposed by Klausmeier (1979).

Administrative Arrangements. Decision making groups are formed that include district committees and councils and also building committees and councils. The decision-making groups are centered in West High School. The district is committed to decentralization, and each school with its surrounding attendance area is responsible for the school program.

The major programmatic decision-making group is the Instructional Improvement Committee (IIC). IIC membership includes administrators, teachers, classifieds, parents, and students. All program changes and improvements are approved by the IIC. The group applies a consensus decision-making mode to all of the issues it considers.

The administrative team consists of the principal and three unit principals. They meet weekly to plan and implement decisions that affect the day-to-day operation of the school.

Organization for Instruction and Advisory Arrangements. West High School divides its faculty and students into three subschools. Each subschool is headed by a unit principal. The subschools are staffed by a counselor, several classifieds, and approximately one-third of the teachers and one-third of the student body. Teacher advisor groups function within each subschool. Teacher advisors and students of a subschool are the direct responsibility of the

counselor and unit principal assigned to the respective subschools. Instruction is not a function of the subschool. Students receive instruction across subschools from various subject matter departments.

Instructional Programming for the Individual Student. This objective has three facets which includes planning each student's individual program, providing objective based instruction that meets the requirements of the planned program, and evaluating the student's progress in achieving desired outcomes for further direction. West High School implements all three facets in its educational program. Teacher advisors plan each student's instructional program based on the student's goals, standardized test information, and the results of competency tests the district requires for graduation.

The school's curriculum is based on prestated objectives that give teacher advisors and students the information necessary to make choices. The curriculum is organized around levels of difficulty, from one to five, one being for those who have not mastered basic language and five being for students who are capable of self-direction and abstract concepts.

Another curricular consideration is variable credit. Many courses are offered on the basis of more or less credit than the standard credit unit. Amount of work completed is the basis for the credit given, as opposed to the amount of time spent in a class. The student's grade represents the quality of the work completed.

Third, teacher advisors continually monitor their assigned students' progress in terms of skills mastered and credits earned toward graduation. This continuous monitoring generally includes the students' post high school plans.

Curricular Arrangements. The curriculum is sufficiently comprehensive and flexible so that each student, with the guidance of the student's teacher advisor and parents, could take a total program of courses and other activities that is suited to the individual student's educational needs and other characteristics, and that also meets school, district, and state requirements. The school has an extensive curriculum designed to meet the needs of every student. The school literature states:

> West High School's commitment to designing learning programs which meet the individual needs and interests of each student is paramount. If a student has an educational need which is not or can not be met through our existing program, then he or she should let his or her advisor know. The school wants to work with each student to meet those needs.

In addition to the comprehensive curriculum and its flexibility, the school provides an off-campus work-experience program, an in-building alternative educational program, an advanced placement program, a release program for college credit in cooperation with a nearby community college and university, and a program for students needing exceptional education.

Community Learning and Work Experience. A program of community learning activities and work experiences directly related to

the characteristics of the school population and the community is planned, implemented, and evaluated at the district, school, and teacher/student levels. West High School offers extensive work-experience programs. Students can gain work experience by participating in one of three programs. The internship program is for advanced students in each department. Qualified students can be placed in a variety of off-campus stations for in-depth experiences. Students are committed for two to four hours per day and earn credit based on the amount of time spent on the job. Placement is available through the supervising staff member, the community based coordinator.

Work experience is the second program available. Students may enroll in work experience for credit and pay. Work experience is supervised by the school and the student takes related course work during the regular school day. The goal is not entirely work exploration, since students are expected to acquire desirable work habits and attitudes.

The third off-campus program is offered in conjunction with businesses and industry of the area. This program is intended for students with a range of abilities, either vocationally or non-vocationally. Again, the school provides supervision and the students earn credit, but no pay. Many students are placed on regular jobs in their work settings after having had the training. In most cases, these students participate for two-hour blocks of time.

Eighteen specific programs are offered including animal health care, banking and finance, dental health occupations, landscape and nursery, and restaurant training, among others.

The coordinating staff of the community learning and work experience programs works continually to develop student and staff awareness of the programs and to develop additional experience sites in the community.

Evaluation. Students progress toward obtaining the objectives of the units, classes, or courses in which they are enrolled. Each student's total educational program is monitored and improved through systematic evaluation. The teacher advisor has major responsibility for monitoring student progress. Teacher advisors work directly with their students, other teachers, and parents on a continuing basis. This monitoring assures each student opportunities to receive continuous input regarding their performance. Teacher advisors receive direct feedback from the proficiency testing laboratory regarding progress toward completion of the competencies required for graduation. The guidance staff assists in credit checks for progress toward the completion of credit toward graduation.

Student Decision-Making Arrangements. Students progressively assume responsibility for working independently with a lesser amount of adult direction and control. They also assume more responsibility for making decisions about their course objectives and activities,

their complete educational programs, and career preparation, including community learning activities and work experiences.

Students are allowed to participate in several areas of decision-making. The teacher advisor/student relationship is a partnership, and, as such, allows the students to choose their curriculum and day-to-day activities. For example, parent-student-advisor conferences are conducted by the students.

Students are included on the Instructional Improvement Committee and allowed equal voice in decisions that affect the school's program. Other councils, committees, and task forces routinely include students. Students are represented on the Budget Advisory Committee and on staff selection committees.

Home-School-Community Relations. Cooperative efforts and effective communications between the school and the community are fostered. West High School has an extensive home-school-community relations program. Citizens serve on the Instructional Improvement Committee, the Parent Advisory Council, and a recently implemented ombudsman program for each attendance area.

Home-school contact is primarily achieved through the teacher advisor program. Teacher advisors meet formally twice a year with the parents of their students and have many informal contacts as needed. The school also conducts a parents' night which offers them the opportunity to meet with teachers and advisors. A comprehensive newsletter also is mailed to parents regularly.

Internal and External Support Arrangements. The environment for learning and instruction within the school and for work and non-work educational experiences in the community is enriched through the intellectual, technical, and material support provided by the instructional departments, the IIC, the district, and by external agencies, such as the state education agency and teacher education institutions.

Two components of the school program relate to this objective. First, the IIC distributes the resources, both staff and material, made available to the school. Second, the IIC is concerned with the school's involvement in a state project aimed at improving secondary education. The school has the responsibility for reporting on improvements made to other schools interested in the various program components of West High School.

Continuing Research and Development. Student learning and personality development; curricular, instructional, and student advising arrangements; school-community relations and community educative experiences; and administrative-organizational arrangements are improved through continuous research and development conducted by school personnel and cooperating individuals and agencies.

Internal evaluations were recently conducted regarding the teacher advisor component. The proficiency testing laboratory provided continuous evaluation for each student until all competencies required for graduation are mastered. A program of schoolwide achievement testing is being designed for implementation.

External research efforts include state agency visits regarding the funds given the school for its efforts to improve secondary education programs. The school also has had a recent accreditation visit conducted by their regional Association.

The school is involved in a continuous relationship with the University of Wisconsin-Madison through its Research and Development Center for Individualized Schooling. This association included four case study investigations, the preparation of filmstrips and other material to describe various aspects of the school program, and attendance at annual Center conferences.

Description of the Data Collection Method

The data for this study were gathered through the use of interviews, participant observations, and document analysis. In terms of actual instrumentation, as a device for gathering data, there was an initial interview schedule (Appendix B) developed before site entry and a revised interview schedule (Appendix C) developed after one week on site in the school. Field-related propositions were developed and validated after two weeks on site in the school.

In addition, the researchers used participant observations, where specific individuals were shadowed for specified periods of time, and the actions and words of that individual were recorded verbatim. Documents concerning recent school life, curriculum

guides, school forms, and school announcements were gathered and brought back from the school.

The following sections describe the initial interview schedule, the revised interview schedule, the field-related propositions, observation procedure, and documents gathered from the field. The final section will describe the actual procedure used by the researchers in determining exactly who to interview, who to observe, how to alter the interview schedule, and the tentative propositions to be validated.

The Initial Interview Schedule

The initial interview schedule was developed by the researcher and the two co-researchers before entry into the school. This schedule was designed to gather information about the administrative behavior in the school as perceived by the members of the educational community of the school. Interviews were conducted on site by the three researchers (the author and two co-researchers) and normally lasted for approximately two hours, although some interviews lasted as long as six hours. Each interviewee signed an Informal Consent Form (Appendix D). The interview schedule contained both open-ended and focused questions. The following open-ended questions were asked:

1. Discuss the strengths and positive aspects of the school.
2. Discuss the weaknesses and concerns you have about the school.
3. Discuss the major issues facing the school.

The three open-ended questions often served as the impetus for eliciting from the interviewee the information necessary to answer the focused questions. If such was not the case, then the researcher asked the interviewee to comment about the administrative organization of the school, the administrative impact on the curriculum philosophy and design of the school, the administrative staff relations, the administrative impact on the teacher advisor program if applicable, the administrative impact on the home-school-community relations, and the administrative influence on the evolution of the school.

The initial interview schedule was followed religiously by the research team during the first week on site. Probes were used only to ascertain the meaning the respondents assigned to various events and to determine what the subjects said about the way things ought to be (Wolcott, 1975). Necessarily, the questions, both open-ended and focused, were framed in general terms in order to refrain from imposing preconceptions and perhaps misconceptions on the setting (Bogdan & Taylor, 1975).

Approximately 21 interviews were conducted during the first week by the three members of the research team. During the first week, every effort was made to interview all building-level administrators, a representative number of teachers, reputationally identified parents, and student leaders.

The Revised Interview Schedule

By interviewing all or nearly all of the administrators, representative teachers, parents identified reputationally as knowledgeable about the school, and elected student leaders, the research team began to cultivate what Wilson (1977) called an empathetic understanding with the participants and a unique insight into the social setting of the school.

At the end of the first week, the research team pulled away from the field and analyzed the data generated through the interviews, daily observations, and reading of documents related to the school. By analyzing the data, the researchers began to ascertain categories, properties, and hypotheses about general problems facing the school (Glaser & Strauss, 1967).

A second, revised interview schedule (Appendix B) was developed out of the tentatively identified categories, properties, and hypotheses about general problems at West High School. This revised interview schedule was then used as the basic interview format, along with the initial three open-ended questions from the first interview schedule. The following significant questions emerged after the first week at West High School:

1. What do you think of the administrative organization of this school?
2. How are decisions made? What is your involvement?
3. How is the budget developed?
4. How would you characterize the leadership style of the principal?

5. How effective is the curriculum?
6. Who designs the curriculum?
7. How do the facilities affect the operation of the school?
8. What formal and informal communication channels are utilized?
9. What is your opinion of the teacher advisor program?
10. What is the role of counselors in the school?
11. How are parents informed and involved?
12. How are staff development needs met?
13. How are new staff members selected?
14. How would you rate the morale of the staff?
15. How do you feel about the past and projected changes?

Finally, each of the respondents interviewed according to this revised interview schedule were asked to comment about what would improve the administrative structure, administrative processes, and administrative behavior at the school.

The revised interview schedule was used by the research team during the second week of interviewing and the first two days of the third week. Thirty-one people were interviewed with this interview schedule, including randomly selected teachers, selected teachers referred to the research team, volunteer teachers and students, selected parents, board members, and the superintendent. Procedures utilized by the research team have been used by numerous other ethnographic researchers such as Hunter (1953); Dahl (1961); Becker, Geer, Hughes, and Strauss (1961); Walcott (1973); and by

researchers previously connected with the University of Wisconsin Research and Development Center for Individualized Schooling, including Daresh (1978), Neiner (1978), and Watkins (1978). All building administrators were included in the interview sample because the focus of the study was on administrative organization, processes, and behavior.

The revised interview schedule was designed to disprove the tentative findings of the research team. Particular phenomena had emerged after the first week on site; and by suspending belief in such phenomena and asking questions designed to determine negative instances, the research team hoped to revise, alter, and reject those tentative findings initially identified (Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Bruyn, 1970).

The Field-Related Propositions

By looking for the negative instance, the research team strengthened the reliability of the research propositions. The research propositions became more data related and data specific (Becker, Geer, Hughes, & Strauss, 1961; Cusick, 1973; Glaser & Strauss, 1967). Relationships among phenomena emerged, and the meaning attached to particular phenomena by the members of the social system became clear (Bruyn, 1970; Wehlage, 1978).

At the end of the second week and a half, the research team pulled back from the research site and examined the findings. The

initial categories, properties, and hypotheses were analyzed and compared with findings generated as a result of the revised interview schedule (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). Those initial categories, properties, and hypotheses were revised, altered, or discarded as a result of discoveries made during the second round of interviewing, observations, and document analysis (Becker, Geer, Hughes, & Strauss, 1961; Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Iannaccone, 1975).

A set of field-related propositions emerged from the above analysis. These propositions attempted to describe the world of the school as seen by those participating in it (Wehlage, 1978). These field propositions identified, clarified, and restated problems as identified by the data from the school (Glaser & Strauss), 1967; Iannaccone, 1975).

The field-related propositions reflected what was perceived to exist in terms of administrative organization, processes, and behaviors at West High School. There were 21 propositions that emerged. The propositions dealt with the administrative organization; decentralization; leadership processes and behavior; change; teacher advisor program; maintenance procedures; curriculum; decision-making structures and processes; parent involvement; facilities; budget processes; staff morale; staff development; and staff selection.

The field-related propositions were presented to various respondents in order to determine which propositions stood the

test of the perceptions of those in the system. Approximately one-fourth of the initial interviewees were asked to comment on the field-related propositions. Before sharing these field-related propositions, the research team requested that those interviewees insure a reverse confidentiality with the research team. The purpose for this request was to limit system pollution of the propositions and determine individual responses to the propositions.

Individuals were chosen to share in reviewing the field-related propositions based on their positions within the school organization and their attitudes toward the organization as determined by the research team (Dahl, 1961; Wolcott, 1974). Individuals perceived to be highly supportive of the administrative organization, processes, and behaviors; individuals perceived to be reflective and sometimes critical of the administrative organization, processes, and behaviors; and individuals perceived to be highly critical of the administrative organization, processes, and behaviors were presented with the field-related propositions. Again, the research team was searching for negative instances, and only those propositions which stood the test of the overwhelming majority of the above groups were assured to be accurate perceptions at the school (Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Bruyn, 1970).

Observation Procedures

Daily observations of the school and related activities were made by the research team in order to determine the administrative

impact on the school and its activities. Participant observation techniques as defined by Vidich (1969) and Cusick (1973) were used. The research team spent several days shadowing the key administrators of the school. A written record was kept of every activity performed by the key administrators. The time, the surroundings, the verbal commentary, and the nonverbal actions of the key administrators were all noted. No attempt to predetermine categories was made by the researchers.

All key administrative meetings were attended by one or more members of the research team. These included principal and unit principal meetings, principal and unit principal meetings with district administrators, department meetings, IIC meetings, and general staff meetings. Additionally, meetings such as board of education meetings, parent advisory council meetings, and student forum meetings were attended by the research team. Careful records of all verbal comments and notations of nonverbal reactions were made concerning each of these meetings.

Daily observations of school activities were made by the research team. Representative classes were visited in every instructional department. Schoolwide assemblies and sporting events were attended. The research team ate lunch in the faculty cafeteria and observed and recorded various conversations. Daily visits to key places within the school, such as the instructional materials center, the student activities area, the center for the fine arts,

and other heavily used facilities were made and observations were noted.

Analysis of Documents

Pertinent available documents were collected at the school and at the district office. Included were minutes and agendas of meetings, program descriptions, daily announcements, school newspapers, accreditation association self-study and team reports, pamphlets and articles written about the school and its program by the principal and others, city newspapers, and other related information. The collected documents were analyzed to give some historical perspective. They often covered aspects of the school's life not known to all participants nor observed by the research team (McCall & Simmons, 1969).

The analysis of the documents was initially done in the field and then more carefully completed once the research team left the research site. The various documents were revealing in several ways. Discrepancies between written documents and actual practice were noted and provided the basis for determining parts of the revised interview schedule and the field-related propositions. As noted, an historical perspective was gained by analyzing the various documents. Insights concerning what information was distributed to whom and how was gained through reviewing these documents. Communication channels to the staff, students, and community were identified and then checked through formal questions to various

participants. Further analysis of the documents upon leaving the research site provided further evidence to support many of the commentaries of the interviewees.

Data Gathering Procedures

Based on the research focus--the emphasis on and administrative impact on a school by looking at the administrative organization, processes, and behaviors--the research team decided to interview all building level administrators.

Staff members initially interviewed were chosen based on their reputation as leaders of particular points of view. In most cases, this information came through referral from an administrator or from a document where the individual was named.

Additional staff members chosen to be interviewed were randomly selected. The criteria used to select these respondents attempted to ensure that teachers from every department, veteran teachers with five or more years of experience, and new teachers with less than five years of experience were interviewed.

Parents and students were chosen to be interviewed initially as a result of the positions they held. Efforts were made to interview elected student leaders, parents who were IIC members, and parents who served on various committees connected with the school. Later, parents and students who had been referred to the research team because of their knowledge or points of view were also interviewed. All possible attempts were made to interview parents and

students who were active in the school community and held both positive and negative attitudes about the school and its programs.

Observations were conducted throughout the school, but shadow observations were done of administrators only. Again, because of the emphasis of the study, the shadow observations were designed to gather information about administrators and the actions they took as a part of the organization, as well as their personal behavior. The principal and the unit principals were shadowed by two members of the research team at different times.

During observations, the research team attempted to record any verbal commentary, specific actions by the administrators and others, nonverbal behavior of administrators, and behaviors of others. Later, the observations were examined, compared, and contrasted with information gathered from the interviewing process.

At the end of the first week on site, the research team had interviewed 21 people, observed within the school daily, shadowed the principal and unit principals, and gathered and read weekly and daily school documents and other historical documents about the school. The initial interview schedule was used for the first 21 interviews.

Fortified with the above data, the research team pulled back from the field site and analyzed the data to discover categories, properties, and hypotheses related directly to the general problems of West High School regarding their administrative organization,

processes, and behaviors (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). Tentative hypotheses emerged and then became the basis for the revised interview schedule to be used during the next stage of the research process. The revised interview schedule was school specific and used the language of the actual school to ascertain information. The questions for the new revised interview schedule were created around tentative findings and were asked specifically to acquire replies which would confirm or deny initial hypotheses about the school.

The initial hypotheses were as bias free as possible, given the limitations of any ethnographic study. The use of the three-member research team with constant feedback and discussion shared with one another allowed the data related statements to be much more objective than might a single researcher have achieved. Additionally, tentative hypotheses emerged directly from the data (Bogdan & Taylor, 1975), and reflected the perceived reality of those who actually lived within the school social system (Cusick, 1973; Wehlage, 1978).

Throughout the next week and a half, the revised interview schedule was used. Further observations were done and documents gathered. As this new evidence was gathered, it was compared with the tentative hypotheses. This resulted in the revision of some tentative hypotheses and the rejection of others (Becker, Geer, Hughes, & Strauss, 1961; Glaser & Strauss, 1967). The initial perceptions of the research team were validated through examining the

newly gathered evidence and through living in the system (Cusick, 1973).

Based on the work of the first two and a half weeks, the research team developed a clearer understanding of the meaning of the phenomena observed (Bruyn, 1970). The tentative hypotheses were revised, limited, rejected, and rewritten into field-related propositions (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). The field-related propositions were systematically worked out in relationship to the field data (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). The three-member research team, with their various personal analyses, with their various viewpoints from the respondents they contacted, and with their own personal experiences, became the actual instrument for validating the field-related propositions (Cusick, 1973).

To validate further the propositions, they were then introduced into the system at West High School. No new persons were interviewed or asked to comment about these propositions. Individuals who had initially been interviewed were asked to comment about the propositions and confirm or deny their validity. Those individuals were asked to agree not to discuss these propositions with any other members of the school community. They were warned that these field-related propositions were still tentative and that if they disagreed with propositions, they were to clearly state those objections.

Individuals responding to the field-related propositions were chosen because of their personal opinions and attitudes about the administrative organization, processes, and behavior. The research team was seeking negative instances (Becker, Geer, Hughes, & Strauss, 1961) whereby particular people could illustrate that things were not the way the field-related propositions said they were. Individuals were chosen in equal numbers from three groups: those who adamantly supported the administrative organization, processes, and behaviors; those who reflected and disagreed with some aspects of the administrative organization, processes, and behaviors; and those who adamantly opposed the administrative organization, processes, and behaviors. Propositions that were supported by all three groups were retained as stated; propositions that were opposed by all three groups were rejected; and propositions that were partially supported were revised according to the necessity for further analysis.

Analysis of the Data

Numerous commentators have noted that in an ethnographic study data gathering and analysis take place simultaneously (Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Lutz & Iannaccone, 1969). The research followed a seven-step process as outlined by Bruyn (1970) whereby particular data were investigated, the essence of the data were noted, modes of how the data appeared were noted, reactions to the

data by those involved were noted, belief in the existence of the data was suspended in order not to pollute the study, and the meaning of the data were interpreted.

The analysis of the data followed a four-step process described by Glaser and Strauss (1967) as the constant comparative method. The constant comparative method generated and suggested many categories, properties, and hypotheses about general problems related to the administrative organization, processes, and behaviors at West High School. By developing the above mentioned categories, properties, and hypotheses, incidents applicable to each category were compared with the category; categories and their properties were integrated into tentative hypotheses; the tentative hypotheses were refined, limited and restated as field-related propositions; and finally, grounded propositions were written as grounded theory.

A comprehensive view of the administrative impact on an innovative high school emerged as grounded data-based propositions about administrative organization, processes, and behaviors. According to the precepts of ethnographic studies (Bogdan & Taylor, 1975; Glaser & Strauss, 1967), these grounded propositions emerged as grounded theory which confirmed much of existing formal theory concerning administrative organization, processes, and behaviors, and identified the need for more emphasis on and refinement of certain parts of existing formal theory.

The grounded theoretical statements were further analyzed by comparing the grounded propositions to existing formal theory. What emerged was the need to compare the grounded theory to social systems theory with emphasis on role congruence and need-dispositions; organizational theory with emphasis on Hage's axiomatic theory; decision theory with emphasis on decision involvement; leadership theory with emphasis on leadership style; change theory with emphasis on the stages of the innovative processes; motivation theory with emphasis on hygiene and motivators; organizational climate; and administrative processes.

Limitations of the Study

All ethnographic field studies are limited by the ability of the researcher collecting the data. As the key instrument of the study, the researcher had to work constantly to ensure objectivity, validity, and reliability. The biases of the researchers had to be taken into account. By using a three-member research team, the researchers continually worked to expose one another's motives and prejudices and worked to correct them.

The time factor was a limitation of the study. First, by being on site only three weeks, only a particular dynamic slice of reality within the life of the organization was examined. Second, not every member of the school community was interviewed and observed. To counter these limitations, the research team asked

respondents to view the interview questions over a period of time and as a dynamic whole rather than individualistically. Also, the collection of historical documents and the analysis of these documents was intended to counter this limitation.

The study was limited in terms of its generalizability because of the nature of ethnographic studies. Only one research site was used for the study and the generalizations are based on the data which existed in that one site. While true, Cronbach (1975) noted that all generalizations are limited and decay through time and that the primary goal of social science research is an interpretation in the context of a specific situation and not mere generalization.

In sum, the study does not describe every action. Conditions were specified under which it was culturally appropriate to anticipate certain actions by an individual in a role. Wolcott (1975) noted that an ethnographic study is a theory of cultural behavior in a particular society and is adequate to the extent that the statements of the researcher could be used as instructions for appropriately anticipating the scenes of the society.

CHAPTER III

PRESENTATION OF THE DATA

In this chapter the data for West High School are presented in terms of six field propositions dealing with the administrative organization, administrative processes, and administrative behavior. The propositions related to decentralization, the teacher advisor program, the decision-making process, the staff selection process, and leadership behavior.

West High School was selected as a study site because of the administrative organization and processes used in the school program. The administrative structure and processes are somewhat similar to those needed to individualize schooling as described by Klausmeier (1979). Three important considerations emerged as important determinants of behavior: the district's historical commitment to decentralization and school attendance area autonomy; strong administrative leadership committed to decentralization; and the skillful selection of a teaching staff to meet the goals of the school.

Administrative Organization Propositions

The first two propositions dealt with the decentralized administrative organization of the school. The strengths of the administrative organization were recognized as personalization,

autonomy, and involvement in decision making. The weaknesses were identified as inefficiency and unclear lines of authority.

Administrative Organization Proposition Number One

Decentralization at the district level allows a school to apply assigned resources for its own priorities. Further, organizing a school into several administrative units provides an opportunity to alleviate the problems of a hierarchical bureaucracy. However, a decentralized organizational structure can be an inefficient administrative system with duplication of some functions and others left unattended. For example, unclear lines of communication create confusion within West High School over where teachers and students should go if they have a problem which must involve other staff or the administration. Moreover, the various administrators are uncertain at times regarding whose responsibility any given task might be.

District Responses. Interviews with board members and the superintendent helped to establish the genesis and philosophy of the district's decentralization and the resulting administrative organization of West High School. Regarding decentralization of the district, the following comments were made:

> The district was formed by a group of people who couldn't get heard in the school of the preexisting district. Local school autonomy was built into the framework of the new district. When the superintendent search was started, a top priority was to hire someone compatible with the decentralized concept.

> Our school district does now need to take care of some of our housekeeping issues, but if that's what's on the teachers' minds then I am sure we've made progress with their concerns.
>
> Through decentralization and by allowing participation we achieve particular advantages. We increase human potential by establishing ownership among people with equal competence. Thus better decisions result with more thorough implementation and follow through. Ambiguity does result, but if I had to error, I would rather err in the direction of ambiguity coupled with more complete ownership.

Several advantages were noted regarding the unique administrative organization of the school:

> There are things that point to the success of decentralization. At West the atmosphere is open and free of conflict, there's no violence in a time when other schools are having difficulty, the students and faculty seem to be happy. The school's program provides many educational options. Student needs are reflected in the course offerings.
>
> The organizational structure of the school allows for a high level of articulation, coordination, and integration of our activities across the whole program. It makes it easier for everyone involved to have input.
>
> The question of efficiency has to be answered in the context of whether we are heavily staffed administratively or if there is less output from the schools. If neither is the case, and I don't think it is, then it's difficult to be concerned with efficiency. Our system does lead to some ambiguity of roles and some duplication, but in order to accomplish the decentralization we have, this is necessary.

In conclusion, decentralization has had a profound influence on the operation of West High School.

Principals' Responses. The principal was strongly committed to the concept of decentralization. He said,

> The significant difference at West is the decentralization of authority and local autonomy. Decisions are made at the lowest possible level in the hierarchy. Power resides closest to those who are affected by a decision. There are few district policies. Budget power and priority determinations are made at the local school level.
>
> The decisions being made at the lowest possible level has several advantages. It provides ownerhip for those who must actually carry out the decision. Decision making is done by those with the best information. In effect it's a way of legitimizing what has always been the case anyway. Teachers have always done what they wanted once in their classrooms. Now they must take ownership for the decision and be responsible for the actual working effort to institute the decision.
>
> The basic idea behind the organization is to decentralize and to demand responsibility from people by giving them the flexibility to do and create things they are comfortable with.

The principal believed that the administrative organization benefited the school in many ways. He held a deep commitment to allowing the organization to work. There was, however, some discrepancy between the principal and others regarding the effectiveness of the administrative organization. The unit principals confirmed the principal's views regarding the advantages of the organization of the school.

> The unit organization fosters small groups at meetings, allowing for more communications and a sense of togetherness.
>
> The unit structure is good for administration because assistant principals have the opportunity to work across the spectrum, thus gaining a broad range of experience rather than one narrow area, like discipline. Units permit the unit principals to work in curriculum, discipline, staff supervision--a total range of administrative responsibility.

> The key word at West High School is decentralization. Local autonomy permeates the whole institution. Many of the staff feel they have input in decisions at the school; and the staff make many of their own classroom decisions. Decision-making is occurring at many different levels.
>
> The idea of decentralization is a good philosophy. Involving the community, staff, and students in decision making is good sense.
>
> The most outstanding feature of West High School is making things personal. Personalizing education means having the administration help the staff feel comfortable, talking to students, and communicating with parents.
>
> The organizational structure of the school, with shared responsibility is neat. It means I have only one-third of the school's discipline problems to cope with. I couldn't handle all of it.
>
> West High School has personalized relations with the staff three ways:
> - the units make smaller groups for a personal touch,
> - sharing administrative responsibility allows administrators time to be available for staff-interaction, and
> - the principal surrounded himself with administrators who have personalities compatible with the philosophy of being always available to staff.
>
> The organizational set-up definitely contributes to the personalization of education. By breaking the school into three units with approximately 600 students and one-third of the staff, it makes it possible for both staff and students to be much closer to their particular administrator. It keeps the administration from being so remote.

The unit principals did, however, recognize problems created by the administrative organization and the processes and behavior employed to operate the organization. They said,

> Shared responsibilities can be less efficient, and are. There is always overlap in duties and responsibilities.

This interwoven structure causes duplication of effort. However, as the administrative staff stabilizes, everything will run smoother and be more efficient.

With our three units it makes it very difficult to know where a student should go if decisions are to be made about that student. Also, curricular areas are "foggy" because there are times when I deal with the social studies department even though I don't have all social studies teachers in my unit. Now that means one doesn't always know where he should go in order to get a decision.

Things at West High School are purposely vague. At a meeting of unit principals, the principal said, "Don't write the policy down because then you're committed." He tries to keep things fuzzy so he can do as he likes, but it creates lots of confusion. The principal's personal influence is very important to running the school--much more so than the organizational structure.

Take the counseling program, the individual counselors seem very talented, but they have little contact with administrators, so we don't really know what they do. There is a lot of duplication between counselors and administrators in scheduling, discipline, and attendance.

The weaknesses of West High School can be placed into two categories--facilities and organizational structure.

The principal gives lots of freedom to "do your own thing" without any direction at all. I don't even know if there's a job description for what I'm doing, and it sure would help if there was one.

Administrators don't communicate with each other at all. Instead of direct accountability for actions and mutual trust through sharing information, West High school emphasizes an atmosphere of trust within very broad parameters without any coordination and communication. This means all the little things "fall through the cracks" because there's no accountability and/or people brainstorming on things to make sure everything is covered.

> The records around here were really a mess until last year. With variable credit and graduation requirements, things really needed to be straightened out.
>
> Our organizational structure does not make things easier, but more difficult. It is not efficient. We constantly have to monitor our processes. For example, with three units, each unit does everything differently, and that drives data processing crazy. We have to constantly tell them that we don't care about forms, we care about kids. Forms are just a piece of paper to us. However, what that means is that we appear to be unorganized.
>
> Problems arise that cut across unit lines. A teacher in my unit may be having difficulty with a teacher or student in another unit. Which unit is the problem referred to? More communication would help. Last year we had only two faculty meetings.

The unit principals supported the administrative organization in that it increased personalization and autonomy but they criticized the organization for its duplication and inefficient processes and resultant behaviors.

Counselors' Responses. The counselors supported the administrative organization because it personalized the school and gave autonomy to the staff. They said,

> The staff can choose the administrator they would like to work with. It's like our student advisement program. Now staff are encouraged not to change, and the principal has the final word, and sometimes he does not honor the request for a change, but they do have the right to request a change.
>
> The organizational structure allows for full participation involving all of the school's community members. This leads to lots of sharing and openness. This phenomenon grows later in the year.

> Working with my unit principal is very easy because he brings sound professional skills to the job. He's open to new possibilities and we can move together on the big and little issues. He has supported my effort to improve the school program and has given me reinforcement for working particularly hard on special events.

The counselors also were concerned about confusion, duplication, and unattended tasks. They made the following critical observations:

> Our organization is not clear. For example, one of us may do all ninth grade orientation, another all senior counseling, and any given student won't see us again or until then because of the unit and the counselor assigned there. I may have inservice responsibility across a group of teachers not related to my unit, also those in my unit, and when I go beyond my unit I may be working with a teacher already receiving help for the same reason.
>
> There's a lot of discrepancy between the idealized image of this school that has been projected and the realized school that exists from day to day.
>
> The units cause a breakdown in communication as teachers and students cut across units and departments.
>
> Unit principals are training to move up. Changes in responsibilities cause systems to be ineffective. When a unit principal learns to do a job, they switch, and the learning process affects the administrative organization.

Counselors supported the contention that the administrative organization had merit, again in the arena of personalization, ownership, and autonomy. As a group, they recognized the limitations in the processes used and the adverse effects of the administrative organizational structure and processes on role behavior.

In administrative and counselor meetings the need was evident for direct coordination between the two groups.

Teachers' Responses. As with administrators and counselors the teachers saw many advantages to the administrative organization. They said,

> Units give teachers someone to turn to for problems because one principal can't handle all of the staff and students; even three unit principals are not enough. Mixing instructional departments in the unit is a good way to keep the school from dividing into departments.
>
> The breakdown into units is beneficial for certain staff and programs. I know exactly where to go and know I can get answers from my unit principal.
>
> The organizational structure enables excellent communication to take place. This communication takes place across disciplines, across professional levels, i.e., teachers, counselors, administrators, and with parents and community.
>
> I like having the unit organization because students and teachers have a unit principal, counselor, and secretary to call their own.
>
> I like the idea of the unit. It breaks down the big group into manageable small groups. The exchange of ideas is easier, meetings are productive, and the agenda items come from within the unit.
>
> There is a more personal approach here because of the unit, rather than everything being from the principal as in traditional schools.
>
> Teachers seldom have to go to the principal because things are handled through the unit principals.

Regarding the horizontal organization of the school, unit principals and unit counselors spent considerable time working with

teachers and students of their units. Even so, teachers also saw weaknesses in the administrative organization. These weaknesses often related to the behavior of various role incumbents. They stated:

> There's no coordination between unit principals. They don't get together to discuss staff concerns. Everything remains vague and in gray areas instead of black and white. There's no decisiveness.
>
> The organizational structure hurts because unit principals don't have the power to make decisions on their own. Everything must be okayed by the principals.
>
> Unit principals have to clear too much with the principal, even though they are the most talented I've seen. The older staff go directly to the principal and bypass the unit principals.
>
> I know who evaluates my teaching, but don't know who's responsible for my subject department. It would be better if there were correlation between supervision and administrative responsibility.
>
> The procedures and guidelines lack consistency. It is difficult to get done what needs to be done. I mean I cannot see why it took two years to decide how to solve our building structure problems. Kids don't know who does what or what they can do or can't do. We are good in that we don't run school for the 10 percent who need discipline, but we are bad in that we don't let the 10 percent know what the limits are.
>
> We are now experiencing a burnout syndrome. The staff was willing to take a lot of problems in stride when the school opened, but this is the fifth year now and people aren't willing to put up with it any more. The people want more clearly defined procedures with a minimum of paperwork and a maximum of efficiency. We need to settle on how we want to conduct such mundane issues as attendance and grading and then stick with it.
>
> This school is hurt by the principal's effort to reinvent the wheel. As a result of trying to be innovative,

we don't have any class officers, senior class advisor (initially, we do now), student body president, and other organizations to make a better school. The student forum is practically nonexistent. Most students don't even know how student government works here. Some things in traditional schools were good, but the principal threw it all out, good and bad.

Students should have more identification with their respective units, unit principals, and counselors.

The unit system is stupid. We have nothing in common with the unit members. There is no purpose in it. It divides up the staff and waters down concern. The representation of the unit on the Instructional Improvement Committee (IIC) lacks any political validity. If the Instructional Improvement Committee is to represent us then he or she must know our interests as either a department or as interest groups within the whole school. The method now used does not represent any real groups.

The staff is isolated into buildings and units. The entire faculty doesn't meet together, except at odd times every so often. Consequently, the staff doesn't have a forum to express its concerns. They are harbored, causing frustration.

By having a decentralized staff broken into units the left hand never knows what the right hand is doing. Complaints and problems go to the unit principals who are just a cog in the wheel. No decisions are ever made at the meeting because everything is tabled for the principal's okay. We never hear what happens after we talk to the unit principal or in unit meetings. The administrative process is bogged down in referrals, always to the next desk.

Dispersion of people and resources into little units and lots of committees means decisions are made without thinking things out and without enough input from various sources. Foolish decisions are often the result. Then they need to be changed.

The organization creates a dispersion of energy which creates frustration and inefficiency. We are supposed to think in terms of a total school, rather than a department, which leaves the department without a mechanism to approach and solve a problem.

All teachers held the administrative organizational structure responsible for breakdowns in communication and consistency of decision making. Frequently, staff and students went to the wrong unit principal only to be sent to another. Issues that were discussed in administrative meetings were not resolved in many cases and lacked the process to be communicated beyond the meeting to people affected by the issue.

Students' and Parents' Responses. Students and parents supported the strengths and weaknesses of the administrative organizational structure. They praised the personal attention given to them. This attention is provided primarily through the teacher advisor system. They said,

> Counselors and unit principals are linked to the teacher advisors and students; this gives every student in the school someone to identify with. If one system doesn't catch a student who needs help, another mechanism will.
>
> Parent involvement is marvelous; if they are interested, they can get involved. The structure allows for this through the Instructional Improvement Committee and the parent advisory forum.
>
> There is a student forum with a representative from each teacher advisor group. Issues from student forum then go to the Instructional Improvement Committee. In addition, there are budget advisory committees, staff selection committees, the senior council, and an activities council. These are all available to students through the organizational structure of the school.
>
> Things are much more organized now than when the school opened. Government is more regular and organized, buildings are finished, and teachers are more comfortable with classes and students.

Both groups also complained about not being heard in the decision-making process, notwithstanding their respective representation on the Instructional Improvement Committee (IIC) and advisory forums. Students and parents were equally concerned about confusion concerning such basic functions as attendance, discipline, record keeping, and scheduling. The following statements were made:

> Most students are unaware of their units. When I had my credit review with a counselor, I thought she worked with all students.
>
> The school is a mess because the computers don't work properly. The grades and absences are all "goofed up," and when you try to change things, it's nearly impossible and takes months. There is never any attention given to you in the office. Most students don't know who their unit principal is or what their job is. Half of the freshmen don't know the principal. All of the principals should walk around and talk to students.
>
> This fall the teaching load caused a section to be dropped from my schedule. I was rescheduled into a class that I can't do. Now I can't seem to get it changed. I've worked with my teacher advisor, counselor, unit principal, and finally the principal, and have had to go back to the principal again.
>
> The IIC is our way to be heard, but students don't even know about IIC or what it is. When we vote it's by name, not ideas or qualification. The Student Advisory Forum doesn't work well because nothing is done there. The teacher advisory groups don't even send their representatives. IIC decisions are not announced to students or discussed. The parents who serve on IIC are those who are aware and want to serve. There is no attempt to get representation of communities or ideas.

In summary, all of the respondents saw the major strengths of the administrative organization as autonomy, personalization, and the participation allowed in making decisions. Moreover, all

respondents saw the administrative organization as being inefficient, confusing, and difficult to understand.

Administrative Organization Proposition Number Two

The teacher advisor (TA) concept offers a means of personalizing a school. West High School utilizes teacher advisors in the school's administrative structure. The school is fostering personalized relationships between the advisors and their assigned students, and these positive relationships are extended to the students' parents. Another outcome of the teacher advisor program at West is the change it creates in the traditional counseling role. The change is recognized as freeing the counselors to utilize their specialized skills.

District Responses. The superintendent and board members all endorsed the concept, viewed it as a strength of the school's program, but as a group did not identify any specific outcomes achieved through the structure.

Principals' Responses. The principal and unit principals spoke directly to the personalization aspect of the proposition. When asked to identify a strength of West High they responded as follows:

> The most outstanding feature of West is its making things personal. Personalizing education means having the administration help the staff feel comfortable, talk to students, and communicate with parents. The teacher advisor program is the whole basis for this personalized education.

Our school is definitely student oriented. This is best exemplified by our teacher advisor program. Every student can at least say one person knows him or her well. That teacher advisor may be on the student's case, but at least someone noticed the kid enough to yell.

Involvement in the school by parents is mostly through the teacher advisor program. Parents like the program because they know there's always somebody at the school they can call and talk with.

At parent-student-advisor conferences held twice a year--fall and spring--we get almost 100 percent attendance because it's a school activity that deals directly with the kids. Students report their own progress to parents while the TA serves as an advisor to students and parents. The teacher advisor program is "worth its weight in gold" for teaching students responsibility and learning to communicate to parents about their own lives.

The teacher advisor program underlies everything at West. The staff here agrees with the concept. They are philosophically committed; if they weren't, it wouldn't work.

The teacher advisor has evolved as an advocate for students. As such they are friends, guidance people who know a lot about the students they have, but aren't expected to discipline them. It has created a climate where the students always have someone to turn to.

One unit principal spoke to the issue of future directions for the teacher advisor program:

We need to strengthen our existing programs like our teacher advisor program. We need to improve by "weeding out" and decide what is appropriate and not appropriate. Some teacher advisors think they are doing low level psychologist work, and we need to be sure they know the aren't trained for that. We need a good inservice staff development program. We need to get more information to the advisors. We should take counselors out of the teacher advisor program and let them provide inservice with the teachers regularly.

Counselors' Responses. The counselors strongly supported the teacher advisor program. They firmly believed the teacher advisor program to be a primary strength of the school. They identified personalization of the school community and changes in their own role as outcomes of the teacher advisor structure. They said,

> The teacher advisor program grew out of the "We Believe" statements about the need to personalize schooling. A task force developed the program and it was adopted at West. In addition to giving us the personalized approach with students it has worked well in reporting to parents.
>
> The teacher advisor program legitimates and validates teacher interest in a youngster. It makes the personal contact workable. As the teacher advisor, I become the student advocate and a surrogate parent. It's me the student comes to when he or she has been hurt.
>
> The teacher advisor program is like an umbrella that facilitates better communication in the school. People are talking a lot more about students in this school than in others because of the teacher advisor program. It personalizes the educational process and acts as a touchstone for parents and outsiders to have a contact within the school.
>
> Our best vehicle for home-school-community relations is our teacher advisor system. Efforts are made to call the parents regularly and on those days when parents are asked to come in for conferences, we get 80 to 85 percent turnout. That really charges up the staff. That's a big high!
>
> We are able to individualize our curriculum through our advisement program. We carefully monitor students and can pick up those students with special needs who need special help, new challenges, or even a new course. We know when they have mastered a particular proficiency and can have a student moved along. The teacher advisor is a student advocate while dealing with the curriculum.

> Counselors have a kind of dual role here. We work with the students and teachers like a regular counselor and also as advisors to the teachers about the student advisement program as a part of our teacher advisor program.

Counselor concerns about the advisement program centered on future direction and refinement, as reflected in the following statement:

> We are still defining ourselves in terms of the expectations we have for our advisor program. The program has been so active on so many fronts but has not been clearly defined. An example could be the counseling staff. We were charged with developing activities for the teacher advisors, and we did develop a mountain of materials. But now we have never really determined which ones to use, when an activity is appropriate, how an activity should be used, or even whether some activities ought to be deleted.

Teachers' Responses. The entire school community endorsed the teacher advisor concept, but none more strongly than did the teachers. They referred time and time again to the teacher advisor program as a major strength of the school. They also recognized, as a group, the specialized role counselors were able to assume because of the relief teacher advisors gave them from some of their traditional responsibilities. Typically, teachers responded as follows:

> The teacher advisor program is great for kids because there's an adult on campus who cares about them and says, "Those are my kids." Guidance is given sometimes where a parent can't give it. The key to the program is the availability of teachers to talk with individual students. More severe problems are referred to counselors since teacher advisors are not qualified.

The teacher advisor program means students don't have to wait for two hours in the counseling office just to talk to someone. This saves time and gives people a chance to get close.

The teacher advisor system is very special. Last year was our first senior graduating class. Well, many of those seniors were back here at the beginning of the year. They can't let go. The relationships with my teacher advisor group have made teaching worthwhile. It is just very special. The teacher advisor is a way of getting everyone involved, both students and parents. We don't do enough of that, but because I know the parents, I do.

The teacher advisor program is the greatest gift any kid has received in his education. Now kids don't always know they have received the gift. We make sure the kid knows he's gotta get from here to there at least. We touch kids who wouldn't ordinarily receive or seek out help. Now it's not always warm and fuzzy, and sometimes teacher advisor groups don't always get along, but the family idea still comes through. At graduation, for instance, groups went up by teacher advisor groups. One kid said, "We're almost next, Ms. Jones." "We"--not "I am."

It could be argued that the teacher advisor program is not within the proper role of the public school. However, our program is not designed to usurp the parent role; it helps kids define things. It goes beyond God, country, and family and shows students there are other places where you have to work together and you have to come together.

Teacher advisors cannot hurt. It goes from zip to very positive. The teacher advisor brings out the best of what a teacher already is. Really toxic things don't come out in teacher advisors.

I like the teacher advisor system very much. I have a personal relationship with 24 kids. Not as deep as I would like, but it does serve to facilitate a one-on-one relationship. Too seldom we deal with personal growth, but we do as well or better than any such program I have seen. The concept is super and where we fall down is on the individual level. We are supported.

> Community involvement is very strong and is achieved through our teacher advisor program.
>
> The teacher advisor program is great, and I wouldn't send our own kid to a school without it. It creates a contact with an adult figure in a nonadversary role. It is like homeroom but you have four continuous years to create a relationship. There used to be a push to use activities in teacher advising, but now each teacher can "do their own thing" with activities available to everyone. The teacher advisor, because of working with kids for four years, has something invested in seeing kids succeed and graduate.
>
> Counselors at best have functions other than scheduling--except for special cases and problems--so they can concentrate on psychological problems and special needs of students who need attention. The teacher advisor program allows counselors to do more counseling and less of the scheduling paperwork.
>
> Counselors are para-administrators and work closely with vice principals helping things run smoothly. They help kids with personal problems, scheduling difficulties, and deal with parents. Teacher advisors handle student concerns to free up counselors for real work.
>
> The teacher advisor program allows counselors to deal with needs of individual students more than other schools. They aren't pushing as much paper because teacher advisors do lots of the work. Teacher advisors refer special problems to counselors who are more available for crisis situations.

Teacher concerns about the teacher advisor program centered on the additional effort and skills needed to become an effective advisor. Other concerns were the breakdowns in the school's communication network that failed to deliver critical information to advisors and the time scheduled for advising. These concerns related to the load of the teacher advisor and coordination, as represented in the following teacher comments:

The teacher advisor program is great in theory, but you can't ask a teacher to do too much. Teacher advising works best when it's like a homeroom, but if teachers wanted to be counselors, they'd go back to school for the special training. The administration can't remake teachers' personality, so they should send kids that need counseling and mothering to those teachers that spend more time getting into problems because teachers have different approaches and skills. Teachers used to be asked to mother kids, but that's not asked or part of the teacher advisor program anymore, so it's better.

The teacher advisor program was an effort to personalize education. At first we met only every once in a while, but the job keeps growing in tasks and in numbers of students we have assigned. Now, I feel we are being used; it's like having an extra class without any relief in the teaching requirements.

More counselors are needed to work with students who need help with adjustment problems (academic, personal, social) and special scheduling concerns.

We are at overload here. The state has asked us to do so very much with other schools. Teacher advising is like having a sixth class. Things are suggested to do in teacher advising. We try them and they fail, and we are then told not to worry, it wasn't important anyway. That is a very confusing thing to have happen.

The teacher adviser program is too big. It's not working as well as it should. No person should be responsible for more than 15. Now I have 26. That is too many.

My frustrations are over the little things. [The unit principal had just talked to him about a kid.] Like that situation. Here is is five weeks into the semester and that student isn't attending classes, but as her advisor and attendance teacher, this is the first I have heard about it. Last year at a parent conference in mid-November I was showing the parents a grade report of one of my advisees that said she only attended three weeks. The parents asked why they weren't informed. I was embarrassed to say that I had never been told either. This school just doesn't do those things well.

> Modification should be made in the teacher advisor program: (a) ratio should never exceed 25 to one and should be smaller; (b) it's turning into too much of a homeroom; (c) teacher advisor not needed daily--only once or twice a week; (d) students should see other teachers also during teacher advisor period.
>
> Twenty minutes every day is too long, too often, especially for what needs to be done on a daily basis. Would prefer 5 to 10 minutes a day with 30 minutes every other Friday. This would also cut down on daily teacher preparation.

Students' and Parents' Responses. Students and parents sensed a difference in climate between West and other schools they had experienced. They related many of the same strengths that the other respondents mentioned:

> I really like the teacher advisor program. Kids need the security of knowing someone is there and know she is there if I need her. One teacher advisor deals with 20 to 30, whereas in my old school there was one counselor for a class of 200 to 250. This is much more individualized, and we get a lot more academic guidance.
>
> I like the feeling I get when I visit here. There is a warmth that comes from the buildings and the staff. That warmth and concern certainly came from the meeting I had with my son's teacher advisor. We never had that sort of meeting in high school before, and I think that's really excellent. They encourage the parent and the child to come to the teacher advisor conferences together. That's really a good idea.
>
> The teacher advisor program is marvelous. It's the greatest thing I have ever seen in schools. At West every student gets help every day and the parents know where to go to get information. The students may not see their advisor all of the time, but when it's necessary they do.
>
> The idea of teacher advisor is good because every kid gets a "friend" for their four years at West.

Students and parents expressed their concerns about the limitations of the teacher advisor program in the following ways:

> The teacher advisor idea is good, but the program doesn't work because it doesn't do what it says it does. It varies on which teacher you get and how much they know about psychology and how much they like to talk with kids. The school should have more training for teacher advisors so the program will work.
>
> The teacher advisor program certainly doesn't achieve the "We Believe" statements posted in the hall.
>
> A lot of teacher advisor time is wasted, which is an insult to students to suggest their time is not valuable. All they do is call roll and read the daily bulletin. The bulletin is ridiculous because high school students don't have to be read to--they can read if they're interested. And attendance is goofed up because kids don't come to the teacher advisor because it's a waste of time as it's set up now.
>
> Teacher advisors don't have power to make changes, like helping change a class. They just start the bureaucratic process going. They should have more power to be really effective. The organizational structure is ridiculous if all it takes is a phonecall to the principal to make a change that was previously denied by the bureaucracy. This frustrates parents.

Observations of teacher advisors in formal and informal settings strongly supported the personalized climate of the school. Time and time again advisors were sought out by advisees and parents. On occasion it appeared that not much was happening, but there was a schoolwide understanding that should the need arise, students had a place to go, and the advisor was always there.

The teacher advisor program also had a direct impact on the counseling staff. Guidance personnel worked directly with staff,

providing staff with specialized skills and information needed to be effective advisors.

Problems of the teacher advisor program frequently involved the processes used and the behaviors of various people. For example, frequent breakdowns occurred in the communication of critical information about attendance. Also, it was generally recognized that some advisors were more effective than others.

Administrative Processes Propositions

Two propositions were derived regarding the administrative process. They related to decision making and staff selection.

Administrative Processes Proposition Number One

Schools that employ participative and/or consensus decision-making models need to ensure that the participants perceive themselves as having strong influence on decisions that affect them. The organizational structure of West High School facilitates such a model. At West High School both the budgetary process and the staff selection process involved those affected, and the staff perceived themselves as influencing the decisions. However, concerning many other issues, the principal controlled decisions so that they were consistent with his own agenda. Thus the principal creates a situation wherein the length of time needed to reach a decision, or nondecision, the lack of feedback during the process,

and the diffusion of potential influence results in frustrations on the part of the staff.

District Responses. The board members and superintendent endorsed participative decision making. They commented,

> We have avoided teacher-management conflict here by working with teachers and seeing to it that teachers are engaged in the decision-making process. We encourage peer involvement in hiring, local site budget planning, curriculum planning, and other decisions important to teachers.
>
> We assume our teachers are professional colleagues that schools cannot do without. We recognize and encourage teacher ownership by encouraging shared decision making.
>
> Participation is the mode of decision making. The staff is highly skilled and independent. This, coupled with participation, leads to more autonomy for everyone and is reflected in a positive outcome. The teachers work hard.

The district was committed to staff participation in decisions about matters which affected their work.

Principals' Responses. The principal was totally committed to the participative decision-making model. He firmly believed that better decisions are made and that through ownership, people implement the decisions and follow through with them successfully. He said,

> The significant difference here at West is the decentralization of authority and local autonomy. Decisions are made at the lowest possible level in the hierarchy. Power resides closest to those who are affected by the decision. There are few district policies. Budget power and priority determinations are made at the local school level.

The decisions being made at the lowest possible level has several advantages. It provides ownership for those who must actually carry out the decision. Decision making is done by those with the best information. In effect it's a way of legitimizing what has always been the case anyway. Teachers have always done what they wanted once in their classroom. Now they must take some ownership for the decision and be responsible for the actual working effort to institute the decision.

Decision making in Instructional Improvement Committee [IIC] is by consensus. When I initially described that to IIC there was a good deal of apprenension. Now they feel differently. The idea is to spread the decision in such a way so as to get as many people as possible to say yes. Now, fewer and fewer departments do things by vote, but use the consensus mode. The logic of consensus is that you don't set up win-lose situations; people own what they are doing, and the method is still suspect. Many still don't believe it can work.

The IIC determines what priorities ought to be by doing a needs assessment, setting priorities, and then determining how monies ought to be spent. Needs are determined by going to the faculty and brainstorming, by polling, and by other means, but the final decision is made by IIC.

The decentralized budget was a new idea to me when I came here to West. Sharing power with IIC where parents and kids are represented created a lot of personal anxiety for me. It meant sharing my power as the principal. It meant that I no longer could count on all decisions agreeing with my own inclinations.

Last year I made a change in the procedure for IIC meetings. Now I meet every other week with just the teacher representatives and deal with a limited housekeeping agenda. This has serves us very well to handle teacher concerns. The teachers take handwritten notes and run them off so that the staff can get an immediate response to their concern. It's easier for the teachers to accept if they can see it all laid out.

> If there is no consensus in IIC, I will sometimes say, "We can't agree and do have a split. What do we do?" Often IIC will say, "Make the decision and come back and tell us what it is." At least they could agree to do that. Then, what becomes important is giving everyone the same information to work on when decisions are to be made.

Although the principal was committed to consensus decision making he experienced personal struggles involved in sharing power. As viewed by other staff members, the principal's level of commitment demanded that all decisions be made using consensus and yet all decisions may not lend themselves to shared decision making. Hence, the principal's perceptions differed from others' concerning his effectiveness in sharing power and influence in making a given decision.

Unit principals reported the following strengths of consensus decision making:

> I came here because of the philosophy of the school. We are a student oriented school. We emphasize participation in decision making by those most affected by the decision. Our management mode is one of participation and involvement.

> High school teachers are much more aggressive and prefer the right to make decisions. They need to be treated in a professional manner. We have created vehicles for teacher input by creating the IIC where teacher input is clearly possible.

> The district does give us a budget and we do then determine how to spend it at the building level. The glaring example of decentralization is represented by the budget. The whole idea may not be as apparent to the staff because they aren't involved with it as much. There is a Budget Committee made up of department chairmen who do pass on recommendations from the individual departments.

> The key word at West is "decentralization." Local autonomy permeates the whole institution. Many of the staff feel they have input in decisions of the school; and the staff make many of their own classroom decisions. Decision making is occurring at many different levels.

Unit principals also recognized problems with the shared decision-making model. Breakdowns occurred because of the principal's perceived involvement in ultimate decisions, the time consumed by the process, the diffusion of groups with the process, and the range of issues submitted for consensus.

> The staff is really frustrated because they're always talking about problems without ever seeing any solutions (e.g., parking). The principal has done a good job about getting the staff to feel ownership of the problem, but not the solution. People like to see closure of problems; even if the decision is not their first choice, at least it's decided.

> The principal manipulates people, including unit principals, to get what he wants. The IIC is really just a facade to facilitate his sophisticated manipulative style. Once in a while he gets caught, like publishing the morning staff meetings in the newsletter before discussing it with the staff.

> Student government always suffers from a lack of clearly defined meaningful areas of power and responsibility. This means students must do two things: (1) provide student services (daily things that are needed); and (2) serious student concerns in policy areas (food, etc.).

> The problem with the IIC is that the diffuse nature of students, teachers, and parents, means there is no constituency for the reps, so they really don't have any power base to back them up and give them credibility as reps.

> The teachers feel that task forces take too much time to resolve some issues, and that the time involved is a source of major frustration within the staff. The

> principal is still in a vertical position and the staff see their actual involvement to be nothing more than "rubber stamps." The unit principals have very little discretionary power; as an example, we don't have a budget for our unit, so nearly every decision goes to the principal.

The unit principals had an active role in decision making in administrative meetings; however, they did not meet with the department chairmen or counselors. Moreover, they had only an informal role concerning the Instructional Improvement Committee. Hence, the unit principals were somewhat "in limbo." Teachers frequently went directly to the principal for a decision that should have involved the unit principal--only because they perceived the principal as the decision maker.

Counselors' Responses. The counselors reported involvement of the staff in decision making to be a strength of the school. Their comments included the following:

> The formation of task groups takes time but does involve people. When staff struggle with some of these issues they realize how complicated they are (food service, school environment, litter, locker vandalism, and parking).

> The IIC plays a major role in deciding the broad philosophical issues. IIC representatives are elected by their peers. There are students, staff, classified personnel, parents, and administration on IIC.

> Discussion and consensus on any major issue is a primary strength of West High School. The staff feels they have input into decisions made at West. The school isn't rigid and inflexible, so IIC has power to change things. Ideas come from everyone.

> IIC is the staff's regular direct line to the principal.

Counselors' concerns were consistent with those of the unit principals. They included the time involved, the principal's behavior in the process, and the range of issues submitted. They said,

> On a day-to-day level, the principal makes decisions and then the decision spreads down to the unit principals and then down below. This is not a two-way process. It is from the principal, down. He is the final decision maker.
>
> Consensus is not a good way to make primary decisions. It is too slow in responding to maintenance issues.
>
> The staff complains about basic problems needing quicker resolutions. Some problems simply need to be brought to the principal's attention.

Teachers' Responses. Teachers strongly supported the decision-making model. They stressed their support for the opportunity to have representatives serve on groups that make decisions critical to teaching. The strengths reported include the following:

> Decisions for school made through the IIC by representatives. Suggestions are made in unit meetings. The department coordinator also gives input to IIC and administration. The result is staff has more input than other schools.
>
> On all of the main decisions, every person from the custodian up feels very free to say, "I am going to do this" or "I think we should do this." Sometimes that means decisions are made out of ignorance of the total picture, but it also means people are involved.
>
> Decisions are made by a group of teachers, students, and parents. IIC works, but I don't know how quickly. The way we do it certainly takes longer to decide on issues, but it also involves more people.
>
> The Budget Advisory Committee really works. For example, the students wanted more trash cans to keep the campus clean, and they were heard.

> IIC makes big decisions for school. The principal is not the decision maker but the presider of IIC. Decisions are done jointly through consensus; the principal listens and makes task forces. This is a great strength because everyone--students, staff, and parents--have inputs and concerns dealt with.
>
> The faculty is adequately represented on the IIC. All decisions really end with the principal and he will get around IIC's decisions when he has to. That's good because the principal should have that authority because "the buck stops with him"--he's the one who's held responsible in the end. Sometimes that means an unpopular decision, but he does it.
>
> For the faculty, it's like voting in the general election. You have the opportunity for input, but don't always get things to come out how you want.
>
> The administration listens to all groups who are represented on the IIC. This is particularly important to teachers, classifieds, students, and parents.

However, as a group they were highly critical of the time it takes to make decisions and of the principal's perceived control of decision making under the guise of consensus. They said,

> The Instructional Improvement Committee is good on paper, but it needs a person to allow it to work. The principal makes all decisions he wants when he wants. People are happy for getting input, but consensus means the principal makes all the decisions.
>
> IIC is effective and does have power. It could have even more power if more people were aware of the principal's manipulative ability. He has his own agenda and he can quite successfully convince others to agree with his positions so they think they actually thought of the idea.
>
> I would characterize the leadership style as leading people to agree with the leader. I doubt that consensus really works anymore if it ever did. I will give an example. In our first year there was a great deal of discussion about a schedule and a lot of research was done. But when a decision was made,

it was made by the principal, and at no time did we hear any reasons as to why the decision was made the way it was.

I'm tired of banging my head against a wall. I have learned that one person makes the decisions no matter what is set up. The principal makes the decisions. Now he is very good at manipulating and making you feel you were in on the decision, but actual decisions are made by the principal. I have learned if I want anything done, I go directly to the principal. I have also learned that if it is low priority on his list, it won't get done. An example is the noise in this building.

Above all, there's not much consistency in the decision-making process. Some decisions are made by IIC and implemented. Some decisions are made by committee or IIC but not followed. The result is that no one ever really knows where the decision has been made that people have to live with. No accountability results from there not being any mechanisms (i.e., safeguards) to ensure decisions are implemented by administrators as decided by IIC. IIC is therefore above the principal when he wants and below him when he wants, no matter what it says on paper.

Persons in high places manipulate meetings to get an ambiguous esoteric decision which those in high places can then interpret and implement however one wants.

The West "shuffle" is purposely done to obscure what's really being done by the administration and to keep people guessing.

An example of lack of responsiveness and accountability. There is no bookroom or coordinator for West to check in new books. Deliveries are therefore left in an absurd variety of places around the campus, causing materials to be lost, misplaced for long times, and much frustration and wasted time on behalf of the staff. Complaints to administration, clerical staff, and custodians have been ignored and delivered materials continue to be stuffed into obscure corners all around the campus. That's how the decision-making process works around here.

The principal makes all the decisions! He is a very "soft sell," but he is also very stubborn. IIC is something I really don't know much about. Now the day-to-day operation is up to the unit principals, but the principal has control and he decides what needs to be done.

Consensus decision making merely means we squabble. I don't think it changes our decisions any.

Consensus is what the principal talks about as a decision-making mode, but I don't know sometimes. IIC meetings are incredibly boring. The consensus reached is often a going along with but not really agreeing. Parents and kids rarely know what is going on. The meetings are dominated by the principal. Meetings like IIC would be better if the principal did not chair them. That would make those meetings far more representative.

The principal does keep people on task, but they are generally his tasks. If a parent or a teacher chaired meetings like IIC, the meetings might be less efficient, but there would be more ownership. There is a built-in psychological leadership in consensus when the principal chairs the meetings and people tend not to say all they would ordinarily. Thus the consensus tends to be tied in and around what the principal wants.

The principal wants consensus and waits until he gets it even if it takes months and months. I don't know if he's trying to be everyone's friend, is afraid to go out on a limb, or is hesitant to make an unpopular decision. Maybe the model is too ambitious and people get too strung out. Trying to always involve teachers makes decision making slower at West High School than at traditional schools and is senseless since teachers' input is often superfluous and not necessary.

Staff and students feel that the principal makes all the decisions. They feel the principal should listen to input carefully and then decide because he must answer for all decisions. Now, he can always find a group to get consensus on his own position by manipulating people.

Vice principals make daily low-level decisions like disciplinary action and teacher supervision. The principal makes high-level decisions like curriculum

and organization of the school. IIC provides input to the principal to help him make decisions. IIC has never disagreed with the principal on a major issue.

Consensus decision-making modes don't really exist. It may exist in certain areas. It depends upon the situation. There is no consistency. An example, athletically, we were in consensus, but the principal did not agree and so we didn't get the request. We wanted black curtains for the gym and it was ranked very high by the budget advisory group, but the principal did not want it. No, consensus is not the decision mode.

The principal is the ultimate decision maker. Consensus is a management game; it makes logical sense but in practice it's impossible. As an example, we worked for consensus on the original schedule but couldn't get it because of departmental differences.

I served for two years on the Budget Advisory Committee. This committee is supposed to advise IIC on budget priorities and spending. In reality, there was not much for us to do. We made a lot of recommendations which were never followed. We didn't have any directions and did not know what decisions we were allowed to make. We needed the administration to define which decisions were open and which ones were not open for our consideration. Now, while it's not down on paper, I think the principal has made it clear which ones are open for discussion.

IIC is not taking the active leadership role that it was developed to take. The members aren't assuming leadership. Student members, especially, are reticent, intimidated, and noncontributors.

People don't serve on committees anymore because nothing ever gets done after spending all your time and energy; the lack of a budget or lack of response to recommendations is frustrating. You go through the outlined process, attend all meetings, an answer is reached, and somehow the outcome is different when it's implemented by administration. Some decisions just happen with no explanation. You can't find out who made it or when, or how the original decision was altered. The art history course decided by IIC to be history department

> but somehow finally listed later as art department. Who did it?
>
> There are two categories of decision making and administrative inservice structure. IIC and the budgetary committee do make decisions and do participate and it does appear democratic. However, the principal is a strong opinionated leader who knows where he is going and what he needs to get there. He controls the direction of the structure and can move it wherever he wants.
>
> Roles keep changing. For instance, the responsibility for program of study has moved every year from one unit principal to another. Attendance has moved at least twice and now a third.

Teachers were quite concerned that their actual involvement in decision making was minimal and that the principal actually controlled decisions. This situation has caused a lack of credibility in the consensus decision-making model.

Students' and Parents' Responses. Students and parents agreed with the other groups regarding the decision-making process. They supported the strengths with the following statements:

> IIC is the main decision-making body of the school that affects those decisions which are schoolwide. I was the student representative on IIC for a unit last year. Issues dealt with were graduation requirements, trash problems on campus, new classes to be offered, and the budget. Issues were brought to us by the principal; we would talk it through. We didn't ever really vote on anything. It is true that students didn't speak as much, but often we would be directly asked how we felt.
>
> There is a student forum with a representative from each teacher advisor group. Issues from the student forum then go to IIC. In addition, there are Budget Advisory Committees and other committees with students on all of them.

> I have learned a great deal by serving on IIC. Most parents lack insight into why some school problems are difficult to solve. If anything, I've learned to be more tolerant.
>
> I've worked with the Budget Advisory Committee and on the staff selection committees, and I feel both are very effective ways of involving parents in decisions.

The group viewed weaknesses in the decision-making process similar to other respondent groups, stressing the principal's control, time needed to make a decision, and the diffusion of influence because of inaction after decisions were made. They commented:

> The average student wouldn't know what the administration does here. In terms of decision making it seems to me that the person who makes decisions is the principal. I can't tell anyone else is involved. Students definitely are not involved. Information about decisions is supposed to come from your teacher advisor group, but no one ever gets any information to give out.
>
> Things are often decided without anyone knowing how they got decided. An example is the new behavior code we have. I still haven't been able to figure out who decided to initiate the code or when it was decided. All of a sudden it was handed out to us to start the year.
>
> Students don't even know about IIC or what it is. The voting is by names and not ideas or qualifications.
>
> Student Advisory Forum is not working because nothing is done there. Teacher advisor groups don't have representatives. The problem is that the teacher advisor group doesn't work like it's supposed to.
>
> The IIC decisions aren't announced to students, or discussed. The parent representatives who wanted to serve got on IIC--no real representation.
>
> I read an editorial for the school newspaper last year complaining about IIC. The problems is that there is just nowhere to go and complain if you are a student.

> Supposedly the teacher advisor system is to send a representative to the student forum and then they are to make recommendations to IIC. The problem is no one listens. The student IIC representative never meets with the student forum. No one knows where to go to complain if they have a problem.
>
> IIC is not as effective as some people may think it is. Decisions must be in line with the principal or they're not effective. He won't move in a direction he thinks is wrong, especially since he must answer for all decisions.
>
> The principal runs the school absolutely. Don't let anyone kid you about that! He is the dominant figure no matter how inconspicuous he tries to be.

Administrative Processes Proposition Number Two

The process used to select the staff has a major influence on the quality of the programs provided. Quality staff, compatible with the goals of a school, depends on proper procedures being utilized in the selection process. The staff of West High School is recognized as outstanding. The staff selection process allowed for participation by parents, students, teachers, and others who must work with the people selected. The principal was recognized for his expertise in staffing, and his impact and influence were accepted as being legitimate.

District Responses. The board and superintendent agreed that West High School has a quality staff. Typical comments were the following:

> We assume our teachers are professional colleagues.
>
> Our teachers deal with student problems first, rather than their own concerns.

> The staff is highly skilled and independent. These factors lead to each teacher having autonomy. This ownership is reflected in the classrooms,
>
> The principal allows for participation in staff selection and is good at picking people who will work toward the school's goals.

Principals' Responses. The principal believed that the staff was the major strength of the school. He said,

> On balance, the strength of West is that it is populated by caring people. The people care about kids whether the kids are achievers or whether the kids need special help and support. The staff members are just good human beings. In addition to these qualities, they have very high expectations of themselves.

Unit principals were unanimous in their beliefs. They made the following statements:

> Many staffs are highly competent in their curriculum fields and even classroom performance. But what makes the West staff special is its enthusiasm extends beyond the classroom. They have lots of outside contact with kids, organize lots of clubs, and show that they are people who care about people. This is largely because of screening good people in the hiring process.
>
> The staff is dynamic, enthusiastic, bright, creative, and enjoy what they are doing. Oh, sure, there are the usual gripes and there is some teacher burnout, but we are dealing with that, and the crux of the matter is that over all the staff is still here and functioning with enthusiasm.
>
> The independent nature of the staff can be a problem. As self-starters who all do their own thing, it's difficult to get them to follow uniform school procedures. However, we have to take the bad aspects of personalities along with the good. It's better to chase them down for my needs than to have them lose independence in meeting kids' needs.

Unit principals made the following statements about the staff selection process:

> We do a paper screening. The department chairmen do that. A list is arrived at and interviews with our administrators, department chairmen, parents, and teachers. Then that meeting sends a list of two or three to the principal for a decision. The principal then sometimes brings in an assistant principal and others for the final interviews.
>
> The principal hires independent, creative teachers who are bright, young, energetic, and care most about kids, not their subject matter.

Counselors' Responses. Counselors totally supported the view that the staff at West High School was unusually talented.

> The West staff is its greatest strength. They make everything else work. They are healthy human beings who care about students. They're incredible individuals with the two virtues of competence and caring.
>
> The counselors are very well trained. They are people who are willing to "go the whole 100 yards." Teachers see the counselors as supportive, who are more than just people who push paper around.
>
> Teachers are responsible for the varied curriculum. They can be creative here because they are allowed autonomy in the classroom and encouraged to use it.
>
> The energy of the staff is incredible. The staff doesn't need prodding and pushing because they're dedicated to the philosophy and were hired for that reason.
>
> Our philosophy of a personalized education is operationalized by teachers, administrators, and counselors. They are able to cut through the paperwork and the rules and get to what's happening with each youngster. I can talk to teachers about the needs of a student who needs special attention, or special challenges, or about some special hurting, and the staff is willing to go out of their way to help. I have yet to see a teacher who won't work with me.

If the principal left, West wouldn't change much now, because the creative staff would want to continue.

Teachers' Responses. Teachers held their peers in high esteem. When asked to comment about the school's strengths they said,

> The greatest strength is the teaching staff. West has the privilege of selecting staff from a large applicant pool of talented people and gets the cream of the crop.
>
> The major strength is the teaching staff. Their energy level is amazing and the things they are willing to do is really great. Of course, my conservative background makes me feel we need higher standards, but the energy level is so high among the staff that they overcome the low expectations.
>
> West has lots of staff enthusiasm and dedication. Many staff members go to workshops on their own in the afternoon after school. The majority are active in staying up on current things through workshops and reading. They're young, flexible, and conducive to change. If something is being done by administration to motivate, it's done so well that teachers can't even see it. It must be really sophisticated.
>
> This school has a qualified, personable staff and positive interaction between each other and the students.

They commented as follows about the selection process:

> The department, along with a parent and a student, narrows a list down to the top candidates and sends them to the principal. The principal makes the final choice. Now, he normally follows our recommendations, but if he doesn't like a person, that person will not be hired.
>
> As a whole I think the morale is very high. We are given the freedom to teach and be good at what we do. The fact that the principal chooses all like minded people makes it possible for me to regard the people as very high in esteem. He looks for younger people who have a real concern for kids and are not cynical

about teaching. [Someone came in then and said, "I am teaching the best I ever taught."] Now that is what I mean. People enjoy teaching here and do it well. That's good!

The principal is a master at hiring people. The initial staff was incredibly strong. He gave them free reign to develop the components which now make up the school. Now, though, our biggest problem is that we have reached a plateau and there is a need to develop some methods of re-motivating the staff.

The principal has the last say in hiring. A committee recommends to him, and he chooses between candidates. The department coordinator should have a bigger say and/or closer contact with the principal as he makes the decision. There is little feedback now until the decision has been made.

The department coordinator, a department teacher, unit principal, and the principal make up the committee for teacher selection. The majority decide on teachers with discussion. Not consensus, but majority rule in this case.

The principal's choice of faculty is unbelievable. He is good at figuring out who is good and who can come up with exciting new ideas.

By hiring well, there is a humanistic attitude within the whole staff, and the principal is a role model. There is flexibility to do what the teacher does best.

Students' and Parents' Responses. Students and parents joined the other respondent groups in support of the staff quality and the selection procedures. Examples of their views were as follows:

My youngest child needs stimulation in order to work. He got "turned on" last spring and really produced. Now I credit that to the concern and stimulation of his teachers. The teachers I have met here have a real talent. I like what I see from the staff.

West has superb teachers because the school has gleaned the best teachers from all around. There are a few average ones, but every school has that problem.

> Teachers at West are nice to get along with. They're friends to identify with. They're good teachers because they're confident about what they're doing.
>
> Most teachers and departments are great because they care about students. My unit principal has been most important to me because he helped in fitting in at West.
>
> Teachers here arrange classes so that they are interesting. They're nice people. I think of them as friends.

Parent involvement in the selection process was confirmed when a parent respondent said,

> Students, staff, departments, administration, and parents are all involved. When I was called to be on a committee everyone had a say in the decision.

The staff at West High School is recognized as being largely responsible for the school's success. The initial and ongoing selection process, an available pool of candidates, and the principal's skill in selecting people compatible with the philosophy of the school are linked to the high praise the staff received.

Administrative Behavior Propositions

Two propositions were derived regarding administrative behavior. They are related to leader support, goal emphasis, and work facilitation.

Administrative Behavior Proposition Number One

A leadership style characterized by strong support and goal emphasis for the individual teacher as a decision maker in his or her own classroom leads to autonomy, ownership, and a high level of

staff motivation. The principal at West High School used this style successfully to encourage teachers to adapt their curriculum and classroom activities to each student's learning modality.

Each group of respondents strongly supported the conclusion that the principal's leadership behavior was responsible for the success of the school instructional program.

District Responses. The superintendent and board members responded as follows concerning the principal's leadership style:

> The principal is intellectual, democratic, understanding of democratic and citizenship needs, and he knows how to develop an educational program which will create optimum development for each child. In the face of considerable challenge, he was able to organize, establish, and follow through the development of a curriculum design often talked about but never done.

> The principal is curriculum oriented. He has a good academic background. He selects creative, independent people and allows them the autonomy to work independently in their own classrooms. He's seen as making contributions, but not as interfering. The result is hard working teachers who know how to help students.

Principals' Responses. The principal held the conviction that teachers work best when allowed to help make decisions that influence their work directly. He believed that the participation furthers the chances that real and lasting change will take place and it will be reflected in teacher classroom behavior.

The principal's leadership style is reflected in the following comments regarding the West High School staff:

> We demand responsibility from people by giving them the flexibility to do and create things they are comfortable with. The staff in turn develops a very high level of expectation within themselves.

> As vitality slackens we can accomplish renewal by supporting the personal dimensions whereby people choose to do those things that are exciting to them personally. This will renew ownership and responsibility.

The unit principals also had been allowed autonomy and were largely responsible for most functions of their unit. They also recognized that the principal worked directly with teachers concerning their curriculum. Their thoughts about the principal's leadership style are reflected in the following statements:

> Without the principal's leadership, the school would not be the same. He and I complement one another. We work well together and our strengths help one another. He definitely wants the unit principals to run their units and there is no pull on the reigns. He expects us to run our units without bothering him. Now he does exert leadership in the area of curriculum, but he also makes that quite clear to us.

> The staff develop curriculum and teach courses they develop if approved by the principal and the Instructional Improvement Committee. Everyone is encouraged to propose and develop their own classes, and then promote them to the students.

Counselors' Responses. The counselors felt that autonomy, ownership and responsibility promote the various role positions of the school. They felt free to act concerning their programs and totally responsible for tasks considered to be in their realm. They also recognized that the unit principals and the teaching staff had the same conditions applied to their jobs. The following statements represent their views:

> The principal is definitely the leader of West. He is a visionary who can look ahead and get things from the drawing board into practice. His force gets things

> going around here. He is the goal person for the school who finds out about programs and fits them to West.
>
> The principal's style is that each unit principal can have "carte blanche" authority in their unit. That is not to say the principal is not a strong leader, but by design each unit has independence.
>
> The principal has a significant impact on curriculum. Since the policy comes from him, he sets the goals and expects outcomes from the staff.
>
> The staff doesn't need prodding and pushing in curriculum areas because they are dedicated to the philosophy. It's theirs.
>
> Teachers are the ones responsible for the varied curriculum. They can be creative here by individualizing and doing nontraditional things in their classrooms.

Teachers' Responses. The teachers provided the bulk of data that supported the principal's influence through his leadership style. As a group, they felt the principal's direct influence in their classrooms. His style and curriculum knowledge were accepted and viewed as helpful. These comments about the principal's leadership style reflect their views:

> In other high schools, the principal was an authoritarian figure. Here that is not true. The principal is as far away from authoritarian as one can be. He makes an effort to hire competent people and then give them the freedom to do their jobs. At the same time, he gives good support. You never feel like you are "floating free."
>
> The principal is able to create in us a good feeling about ourselves. He definitely is executive material and is most comfortable in a leadership role. I think of him as a kind of philosopher-king with incredible background in every area of curriculum. He conveys a lot of openness with the staff.

> We can do what we want in curriculum. The principal is positive, supportive, and very active as a curriculum leader. He's brilliant in curriculum-type questions and knows all areas of the curriculum. For a former math teacher, he amazes me in his knowledge of new social science directions.
>
> The principal is intelligent and willing to try new things. He allows others to take responsibility and is directly accessible. His extra strength is in curriculum development. He hires good people and then gives them the autonomy to do things.
>
> You can disagree with him [the principal] without being destroyed and still work together. It's okay to fail; if things are not right, you simply try again. He's very active and involved in the curriculum of the school.
>
> The best part of the leadership is the caring and concern that is shown here. The principal doesn't get "up tight" and get on people for a small thing. It's just a nice atmosphere where no one has to be afraid of anyone else. People really trust one another enough that they are not intimidated.

Students' and Parents' Responses. The principal's leadership style pertaining to support and goal emphasis did not have a direct influence on this respondent group.

Administrative Behavior Proposition Number Two

A lack of attention regarding work facilitation behavior by the principal impedes fulfillment of necessary coordination and cooperation among various roles within a school. At West High School, the principal's interest in programmatic issues and his lack of attention to maintenance issues caused some staff dissatisfaction.

District Responses. The district leadership responses confirmed the dual expectation of the principal concerning leadership.

The West High School principal was hired specifically to design and promote change at the school. This he has done. At the same time, he has experienced less success in solving day-to-day breakdowns in the school's operations.

Interviews with district personnel reflected the following perceptions of the principal's leadership behavior:

> I suspect that although the principal purports to be an idiographic and transactional leader, in reality he is a nomothetic leader. He doesn't go seek teachers and "prop them up" with a "pat on the back." He is on task and expects others to be the same.
>
> The principal deals with ideas and concepts rather than the political and social reality. He has a very low tolerance for those who cannot intellectually articulate their ideas. He causes instant change because of his presence. Sometimes his presence is not easy to handle and the change caused doesn't bring happiness, but he knows how to move a delivery system along and fulfill the promise of change.
>
> The principal's role would be easier if he were more facilitative of good communication skills.
>
> The principal has some terminating behaviors that are quite disturbing. He is on task, sets aside only so much time for meetings, and will not stay beyond that time.

Principals' Responses. The unit principals recognized the principal's pervasive influence on the total school program. Most of their concerns centered on the lack of attention given "maintenance" issues. The unit principals said,

> The late development of centralized record-keeping procedures and attendance procedures caused us many problems. Early on the teacher advisors had the only record of credit completion and attendance. With that many people involved there were bound to be

> problems. When you as a father go to work in the morning in October before your student leaves for school, you don't want to be told in April that your student missed most of October.
>
> Administrators don't communicate with each other at all. Instead of direct accountability for actions and mutual trust through sharing information, West emphasizes an atmosphere of trust within very broad parameters without any coordination or communication. This means that all the little things "fall through the cracks" because there's no accountability and/or people brainstorming on things to make sure everything is covered.
>
> We firefight around here, rather than plan and coordinate. That's the principal's fault. He should open up all subjects to general brainstorming, discussion and information sharing. Problems with registration, data processing, and homecoming are examples of this.

Counselors' Responses. The counselors saw the principal as having a leadership style directed at the larger issues and philosophy of the school but not effective in dealing with the day-to-day issues. One said,

> The principal is very remote to me. I think I understand him. He has a particular management style. He establishes certain key people who are close to him and then that network spans out like an umbrella. He only has "x" amount of energy and he disperses it out to these key people. This means I receive my communication from someone else. I think I could talk to him but I am not very comfortable with my communication.

Teachers' Responses. The teachers were directly affected by the leadership style of the principal. They said,

> The little organizational things don't really make that much difference, but there does need to be someone interested in order to get them done. The principal is more interested in the big issues and that is okay, but the problem is to define who will handle

these issues. The small tasks are a problem that should be taken care of immediately. Meetings should be announced enough ahead of time to plan for them.

The administration is very supportive to students, but I am not sure about the support of staff. The unit principals are very good, but I have the feeling that the principal might just "hang me out to dry" and not back me in a difficult situation.

There is an inability to get the mundane day-to-day issues solved and out of the way. Instead they are constantly discussed but with no results. There is a kind of crisis management here that responds to pressure but doesn't anticipate that the mundane issues cause teacher morale problems. We do not get the support from the administration that we need in solving our small problems. If you were ranking us on a scale of 1 to 10, we would be about a 6 in regard to our potential.

The staff is grumbling and looking for leadership from administration. They want to speed up the cumbersome problem of change. Now we must wait for unit meetings or complain alone because the faculty never meets together to discuss concerns. In any case, you have to wait forever for a response as the bureaucracy slowly moves.

My opinion of the leadership has changed a great deal over the years. When the school first started, I had a deep respect and admiration for the principal, but it has steadily gone down. Lately, it's more like a captain who doesn't look below his ship. He is very strong in guidance and curriculum. His knowledge is quite broad and he provides leadership, but what is lacking is a reliance on the people below him. The squeaky wheel gets the grease, but he never checks with the department chairperson to be sure it's viable.

The principal is not always totally honest with staff. He listens and smiles and you feel as if he agrees with you. Then you find out he's decided against you and you're shocked. The principal should back up staff more. He has a tendency to support the kids and not his staff in a controversy.

> You never know where the principal stands on anything. He always says, "We'll look at that down the road."
>
> The principal is brilliant, articulate, and a thinker with excellent ideas. However, he shouldn't be a high school principal because he can't make things work; it always looks good on paper, but that's all.
>
> I feel devalued by the principal. What we say doesn't seem to make any difference, and the problems we're concerned about never get resolved (faculty dining, parking, discipline, attendance, record keeping, etc.).
>
> There seems to be a reluctance to deal with difficult problems on a personable basis. I received notice of a critical change in my job status by memo and had to seek out the principal for clarification.
>
> There's a paradox here. The staff works hard because of the programs and the autonomy it gives each person, but to maintain the hard work we're going to need to be recognized on an individual basis for our efforts. To contribute totally and not be recognized is very discouraging.

The gains made through ownership and autonomy could be lost because of problems pertaining to the day to day operation of the school.

Students' and Parents' Responses. The student and parent responses centered on the principal's concern for global issues and lack of attention given the day-to-day operation. Both groups of respondents reported leaving his office feeling that although the principal expressed, nothing would be done about the issues discussed. Typical of the responses was the following statement:

> The principal is a facts and figures person but not an operations man. He should be working for the Department of Education on global issues and money matters. He isn't good for West because he doesn't know how to administer or delegate others to do it.

> But he is excellent at getting every last nickel out of the budget for programs. He's great for thinking up programs but not getting them to work.

The principal's choice to challenge the school and force participation on all issues had achieved desired outcomes, namely considerable effort from teachers and other staff toward meeting the goals of West High School. The question remains, however, regarding whether or not the principal through leadership efforts could achieve both program improvements and eliminate the problems associated with maintenance issues.

CHAPTER IV

PRESENTATION OF RELATED THEORY AND THE ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

In this chapter the relevant theories that emerged from the research data are presented and the data are analyzed in the context of these theories to confirm, give new emphasis, and refine existing theories and the relationship among them. Theories found to be relevant to the data included those related to change, organization, role, leadership, decision making, motivation, climate, and the administrative process.

Change Theory

The focus of the study on an individualized secondary school made change theory an initial step in exploring literature related to the grounded propositions of the study.

The policy makers of the school district of the selected school were given the unique opportunity to develop a new school and were committed to the concepts of allowing each school the responsibility for its own program and to provide each student instruction that satisfied each individual student's learning modality. The process of developing the program was identified with two change models, the implementation model for IGE (Klausmeier, Karges, & Krupa, 197); and Hage and Aiken's (1970, p. 94) four specific stages an organization goes through as innovation is

attempted. These change models made important contributions toward understanding the change processes utilized at the research site.

Hage and Aiken's Change Theory. The first change theory reviewed was proposed by Hage and Aiken (1970, p. 54). They established four stages that organizations encounter as a result of innovative processes:

1. Evaluation. The first stage is which organizational decision makers (a) determine that their system is not accomplishing its goals as effectively as it could be and (b) change the goals of their system.

2. Initiation. The second stage is concerned with the decision making and problem solving to find required job skills and financial support that are required for the innovation.

3. Implementation. This is the initial attempt to integrate the innovation into the organization. Resistance and disequilibrium are likely to be high because of unexpected problems and sources of resistance that are likely to be encountered as the innovation is actually introduced.

4. Routinization. This follows the initial trial that took place in the implementation stage. In routinization the decision is made to retain the innovation and fully integrate it into the ongoing activities of the organization.

Hage and Aiken's description of change was an accurate formulation to describe the school through the routinization stage. During the evaluation stage, the district's leadership was dissatisfied with their historical treatment in a preexisting district. When a new district was formed they were determined to allow each school and the corresponding attendance area broad latitude in developing educational programs and in setting its own priorities.

Much of the initial direction of the district and later the selected school resulted from the stance taken by the early district leadership.

Specifically, the program of West High School was formulated to include participation by all people affected by the school. Moreover, the district's leadership and later the school's leadership became committed to an instructional program that reflected school and community wishes.

During the initiation stage, the district committed funds for a building specifically designed to house the program being considered for implementation; a principal was selected who was perceived as able to facilitate innovation; a staff was selected on the basis of commitment to the ideas being considered; additional funds were committed to provide for staff development; and the school was allowed a gradual start-up plan.

The implementation stage emerged exactly as described by Hage and Aiken (1970). Resistance and disequilibrium were prevelant in the school, and were caused by a wide variance of attitude among the school's staff, students, and parents. The impact of this resistance and disequilibrium had a significant influence on the school because of the massive change being attempted and the strategies utilized to implement the change.

Many innovations became routinized in the school. Examples included the administrative organization with subschools and

teacher advisors; the administrative processes, such as the decision-making process, budgeting process, and staff selection process; and changes which allowed the instructional program to be adapted to each student's learning modality.

Although the innovations were integrated into the school's ongoing activities, there was only limited evidence of maturity or stability in the various structures and processes utilized by the school.

The Implementation Model for IGE. This model suggested five change phases: (1) awareness, (2) commitment, (3) changeover, (4) refinement, and (5) renewal. The phases were identified by Klausmeier, Karges, and Krupa (1977) and were utilized to implement IGE components in elementary schools. The IGE model had significance to the present study because it includes refinement and renewal stages. The respondents recognized that special conditions existed in the school related to these stages.

Klausmeier, Karges, and Krupa (1977) defined the refinement and renewal phases as follows:

> Refinement Phase. After school staffs have begun implementing the change program, they find that new understandings and skills are required to refine their implementation efforts. The need for refinement emerges out of the fact that the staff members are expected to perform their responsibilities in new ways. On the basis of systematic feedback, the change program itself may also be refined.
>
> Renewal Phase. This stage includes activities designed to identify and resolve unanticipated problems, to develop improved ways of implementing the change, and to prepare successive generations of professional personnel to fill new and expanded roles.

The massive amount of innovation at the school caused nearly every aspect of the school's program to experience refinement or the need for refinement. For example, the teacher advisor program, consensus decision-making process, variable credit option, and the decentralized organization were in the refinement stage.

The decentralized administrative organization, a major innovation, caused some minor problems. In five years, the school had grown so far beyond the initial staffing that the starting nucleus of teachers represented a small minority, yet they were the only ones who thoroughly understood the organization. As new staff were added, less attention was paid to the development of skills needed to work successfully in the structure. Therefore, refinement consisted of unplanned movement toward a structure initially established to meet specific organizational goals. The impact of more students and parents can be traced through the same refinement process.

There was a schoolwide call among the staff for a "breather" in regard to initiating more change, for a chance to "catch up," to renew and improve existing innovations. The school leadership recognized the problems created by massive change, impacted by massive growth, and was using existing internal structures to resolve problems associated with refining the change. The most significant evidence of the renewal was an effort to clean up and straighten out communications within the school and in the school community.

Change theory also will be discussed later regarding the influence of change on leadership and decision-making theory.

Organizational Structure Theory

The decentralized administrative organization utilized by the selected school and the impact of this structure on the school program made Hage's (1965) axiomatic theory of organizations significant to the study.

Hage's Axiomatic Theory. The axiomatic theory of organizations utilized eight variables that were common to all organizations--four means and four ends. The means variables were complexity, centralization, formalization, and stratification. The ends variables were adaptiveness, production, efficiency, and job satisfaction.

Hage proposed the formal characteristics because they offered three advantages when evaluating organizations: (1) they can be used to describe similarities and differences between organizations, (2) formal characteristics are not confined to time or culture, and (3) any given organization can be studied using constant variables to measure change.

The organizational means and ends variable were conceptualized with their indicators as shown in the Table 4.1. Hage's axiomatic theory incorporated the work of Weber (1947), Barnard (1946), and Thompson (1961) to develop seven propositions to use

TABLE 4.1

THE EIGHT VARIABLES OF AXIOMATIC ORGANIZATIONAL THEORY

Variable	Indicators*
Organizational means:	
Complexity (specialization)	Number of occupational specialties. Level of training required.
Centralization (hierarchy of authority)	Proportion of jobs that participate in decision making. Number of areas in which decisions are made by decision makers.
Formalization (standardization)	Proportion of jobs that are codified. Range of variation allowed within jobs.
Stratification (status system)	Differences in income and prestige among jobs. Rate of mobility between low- and high-ranking jobs or status levels.
Organizational ends:	
Adaptiveness (flexibility)	Number of new programs in a year.† Number of new techniques in a year.
Production (effectiveness)	Number of units produced per year. Rate of increase in units produced per year.
Efficiency (cost)	Cost per unit of output per year. Amount of idle resources per year.
Job satisfaction (morale)	Satisfaction with working conditions. Rate of turnover in job occupants per year.

*Two indicators are used for each variable because of the possibility of errors in measurement. In general, the first indicator should be the stronger one, with the second accounting for exceptions.

†The time unit of a year is used to level out random variation resulting from specific and idiosyncratic organizational events. This time period also has the advantage of corresponding to one which is used by many organizations in the compilation of their records.

when evaluating organizations in terms of the eight variables. They were as follows:

1. The higher the centralization, the higher the production.
2. The higher the formalization, the higher the efficiency.
3. The higher the centralization, the higher the formalization.
4. The higher the stratification, the higher the production.
5. The higher the stratification, the lower the job satisfaction.
6. The higher the stratification, the lower the adaptiveness.
7. The higher the complexity, the lower the centralization.

Another major consideration of the axiomatic theory was the concept of ideal organization types that could be derived by utilizing the eight variables (Hage, 1965). The two ideal organizations, as outlined in Table 4.2, have been labeled "organic" and "mechanistic."

The school data were analyzed in terms of the eight variables and their indicators, the seven propositions, and in terms of the ideal organizations. The school was moderately complex. Teaching and advising were the major tasks and everyone in the organization, including many noncertified personnel, participated in these major tasks. The school was highly decentralized in that everyone was represented in the decision-making process. There was major disagreement, however, regarding the effectiveness of the representation, and this disagreement will be explored in relation to leadership and decision-making theory. The school was low in

TABLE 4.2

TWO IDEAL TYPES OF ORGANIZATIONS

PREDICTED BY THE AXIOMATIC THEORY

Organic Model (emphasis on adaptiveness)	Mechanistic Model (emphasis on production)
High complexity	Low complexity
Low centralization	High centralization
Low formalization	High formalization
Low stratification	High stratification
High adaptiveness	Low adaptiveness
Low production	High production
Low efficiency	High efficiency
High job satisfaction	Low job satisfaction

formalization. The jobs were not codified, and each person was given broad latitude in fulfilling the responsibility of his or her role. The school displayed low stratification. There was little difference among the staff regarding pay and other rewards and a high degree of upward mobility existed in the organization. Several people in the school were moved up when opportunities occurred. An example of this was that several staff initially selected as aides or for special programs became regular staff when opportunities arose.

Participant observation techniques revealed less data across the organizational ends. However, the following tentative analysis was drawn. In terms of adaptiveness, the school had instituted a large number of new programs and there was evidence

that new techniques were being utilized to strengthen the new programs. The school was high in terms of production, but the high level of production resulted from external as well as internal factors. Given the alternative, the school staff would have preferred to stress quality rather than total productivity. The school in the "classic" sense was highly efficient because of outside limitations placed on its resources. The cost per student of output per year was low. In the sense that the staff utilized the school's resources as they saw fit efficiency was high. In terms of job satisfaction, historically staff turnover had been low and many of the original staff members were still with the school. However, this outcome could not all be attributed to satisfaction with the job. The school was in an attractive community and was faced with few problems when compared with schools in general. The area also had a high level of teacher availability. Moreover, the staff exhibited behaviors indicating high levels of motivation concerning certain aspects of their jobs. These behaviors will be discussed at greater length in regard to motivation theory.

The analysis of data across the seven propositions revealed the following. On proposition one, the school was low in centralization and high in production. However, the high production was partially caused by external factors that limited the school's resources. Two, formalization was low and efficiency was high which was incongruent with the proposition. Again, however, the efficiency

was limited to external factors bearing on the available resources. The real incongruence emerged because of the impact of the way the resources were allocated in the school. This proposition did not seem to account for the efficiency achieved through the allocation process. Regarding proposition three, the school was low in centralization and low in formalization. The data did not confirm proposition four. The school was low in stratification and high in production. Again, the amount of resources made available to the school had a bearing on this relationship. Another reason for the high productivity appeared to be linked to the autonomy each person was given to do the job assigned him or her. Proposition five was confirmed. The school displayed low stratification and high job satisfaction. Proposition six was also confirmed by finding low stratification and high adaptiveness. In the sense that the importance of teachers dominated the school's organization, proposition seven could not be supported. The school was moderately complex and was low in centralization. However, the nature of the decision-making processes accounted for much of the decentralization.

Regarding the two ideal types of organization, the school was an organic organization which placed emphasis on adaptiveness. The school was moderately complex. There was little differentiation among roles and to this extent the organization differed from other organic models. The organic model of low centralization, low formalization, low stratification, and high adaptiveness was

substantiated. Low production and low efficiency were in question because the school exhibited high production and high efficiency. As mentioned earlier, external factors contributed to the incongruence concerning production and efficiency. The decentralized decision-making process also deserved consideration as a contributing factor to the high levels of production and efficiency. Finally, as with the ideal organic organization, the school exhibited high levels of job satisfaction and motivation, as will be discussed later in this chapter.

Role Theory

The application of role theory to the study was related to the emergence of new roles and the expectations placed on existing roles because of changes made in the school's program.

Social Systems Theory. Social systems theory provided a framework in which to view the expectations placed on the new and existing roles in the school. Lipham (1979) described the analytical value of social systems theory to research the roles of an organization. The theory's normative dimension established the role expectations. They are tasks and functions a role incumbent must perform to fulfill the aims of the organization. The idiographic dimension accounts need-dispositions of an individual in any given role. Social systems theory further established the cultural influence on both the normative dimension and the idiographic dimension. The interaction of the three dimensions and resulting

congruence or noncongruence is linked to role effectiveness and personal efficiency. The various dimensions are shown in Figure 4.1.

There were three new or changed roles in the school: (1) the principal's role with the new expectation of allowing for consensus decision making; (2) the unit principals' role created by the administrative organization; and (3) the new student advising role for every certificated staff member.

The principal fulfilled the standard functions of the role, identified by Lipham and Hoeh (1974), the administration of curriculum and instruction, staff personnel, student personnel, financial and physical resources, and home-school-community relations. The new expectations for the principal's role were involved with just how the functions were fulfilled. The decision-making process utilized by the school caused inter-reference group conflict regarding the principal's role. The conflict was identified between the principal and the subordinates and was perceived by the subordinates but not by the principal's perception of the role.

The principal was firmly committed to consensus decision making and believed he allowed for the process which involved every person affected by a decision. The subordinates viewed the process and the principal's resulting behavior as a paradox. If they were somehow overlooked in the decision-making process they viewed the principal as ineffective. When they were involved, they doubted

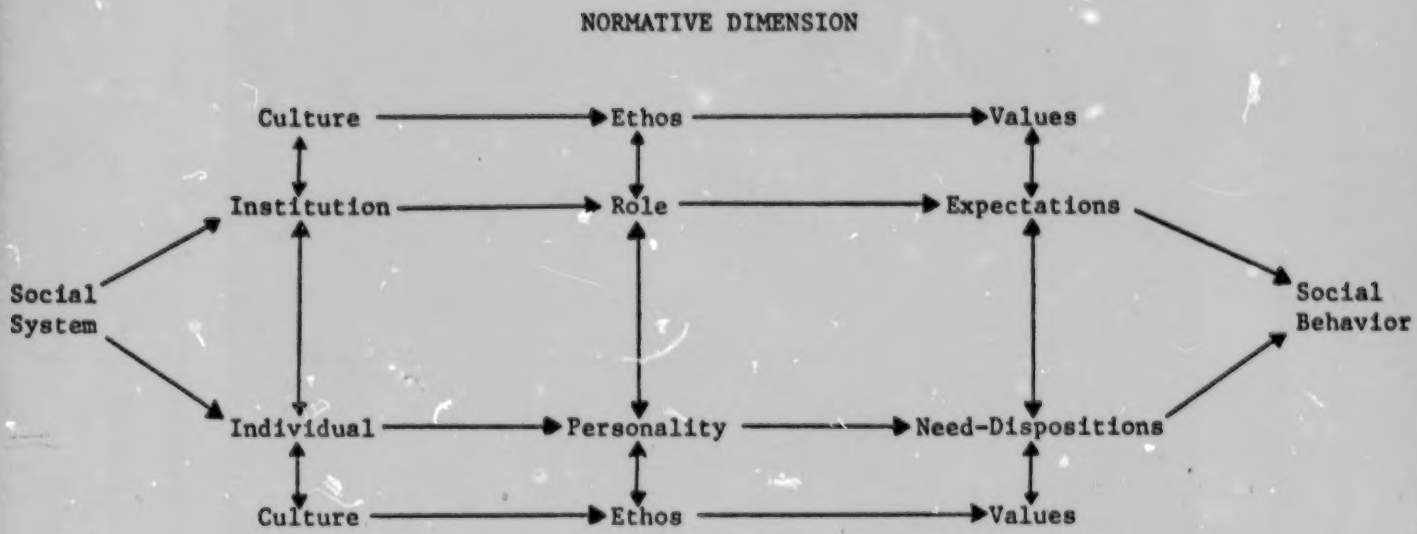

Figure 4.1. Model of the Major Dimensions of Behavior in a Social System

Adapted from: Getzels, J. W., Lipham, J. M., & Campbell, R. F. Educational administration as a social process. New York: Harper and Row, 1968, p. 105.

their influence because they perceived the principal as controlling the process. They also perceived the process as being overused and unnecessary to resolve administrative type problems. Even so, there were examples of successful involvement, such as in selecting staff and budgeting. There were examples of control. Nearly all subordinates perceived the principal to control the decisions that were of interest to him. Moreover, there was much dissatisfaction with the amount of time the process took to resolve a problem. These factors were all attributed to the principal and his perceived role in decision making. Further analysis of the principal's perceived role in the decision-making process will occur during discussion of leadership and decision-making theory.

The unit principals represented a new role created by the administrative organization to facilitate decentralization. There was considerable intra-reference and inter-reference conflict concerning the unit principals role. The intra-reference conflict primarily revolved around the ambiguity of the role as it emerged. Each unit principal, given certain assigned responsibilities, assumed other responsibilities for the role as he or she saw fit. The unit principals did not perceive that most discretionary decision-making power was held by the principal which interfered with the decentralization concept.

Teachers demonstrated a recognition of role differences among the unit principals by tending to join units that were led

by unit principals compatible with their expectations. Although there was some evidence that unit principals looked to the principal for clarification concerning their role responsibilities, the principal was not concerned about providing more structure. Quite the contrary, he felt that they truly did act with autonomy regarding the administration of their own units. This difference can be partially explained by Speed's (1979) finding that the principal's perceptions of desired involvement by others can differ from their own perception as to their desired level of involvement in the decision-making process.

The teacher advisor role was created to act as a personalizing force in the school. The adoption of the program was undertaken to assure every student and the student's family that an adult in the school would be fully aware of the student and his or her school program. The expectation of the teacher advisor role in terms of personalization created inter-reference group congruence. There was consistent agreement among the staff as to the value of the role and the outcomes achieved through the role. Students and parents shared the staff's belief that the teacher advisor role provided for a personalized school environment.

Some inter-role conflict existed, however, especially among teachers as they worked to satisfy the expectations of both teaching and advising roles. There was concern that as the advising role developed it added greater responsibility to the working day

and no allowances were made for the additional work in the teaching load. The burden of advising responsibilities forced teachers to make choices between teaching and advising activities. There was general agreement as to the value of the role, however. A growing concern was that tasks assigned teacher advisors be carefully monitored and that efforts be made to keep expectations for the advising role within reasonable limits.

Leadership Theory

Much responsibility for the strengths and weaknesses of the school program was placed specifically on the principal. The principal's leadership style was seen as largely responsible for the success or failure of various aspects of the school programs.

The behavioral approach to leadership takes into account the individual's characteristics and the situation which the leader encounters. Lipham (1973, p. 5) defined leadership as "that behavior of an individual which initiates changes in goals, objectives, configurations, procedures, inputs, processes, and ultimately the output of a social system." Other significant considerations are locus, frequency, potency, and scope of leadership. Locus involves where the focus of the leadership attempt is, whether it is schoolwide, in departments, work groups, or in the classrooms. Frequency refers to the number of attempted leadership acts. Overactive leaders may lose their effectiveness; underactive leaders certainly contribute very little to a social system.

Potency is linked to frequency and defined by Lipham and Hoeh (1974, p. 186) as "the extent to which an initiated change by a leader represents a significant departure from that which exists, i.e., the magnitude of an initiated change."

The remaining factor is the scope of the leadership act. This concept is described by Daresh (Lipham & Daresh, 1980, p. 57) as follows:

> Leadership may be functionally diffuse or functionally specific. In diffuse leadership the individuals in a relationship have unlimited mutual responsibilities and obligations, while in functionally specific leadership, the obligations, breadth, and depth of the leadership role are limited and functions circumscribed.

Several researchers have described taxonomies of leadership which were related to the conditions examined at the research site. Utilizing these, Lipham and Hoeh proposed the following stages of leadership (1974, p. 187):

1. Attempted leadership: acts that include expression of an intention to initiate a new structure of dealing with a problematic state of a social system.

2. Accepted leadership: acts that are mutually acknowledged as a tentative solution to a problematic state of a social system.

3. Implemented leadership: acts that have initiated a new structure and have met the expectations for resolving a problematic state of a social system.

4. Effective leadership: acts that have initiated a new structure and have met the expectations for resolving a problematic state of a social system.

Leadership Styles. Halpin and Winer (1957) proposed two major divisions of leadership behavior and defined the division as follows:

1. Initiating structure: behavior which delineates the relationship between the leader and members of the work group, and endeavors to establish well defined patterns of organization, channels of communication, and methods of procedure.

2. Consideration: behavior which indicates friendship, mutual trust, respect, and warmth in the relationship between the leader and the staff.

House (1971) expanded on Halpin and Winer's work and proposed the following taxonomy of leader behavior:

1. Instrumental leadership: behavior which delineates the relationship between the leader and members of the work group and attempts to define clearly patterns of the organization without autocratic or punitive control.

2. Supportive leadership: behavior which indicates friendship and warmth toward the work group by the leader.

3. Participative leadership: behavior which allows subordinates to influence decisions by asking for suggestions and including subordinates in the decision-making process.

Bowers and Seashore (1966) developed a view of leadership that included four dimensions, described as follows:

1. Goal emphasis: behavior which stimulates enthusiasm for meeting the group's goals or achieving excellent performance.

2. Work facilitation: behavior which helps goal attainment by scheduling, planning, and coordinating.

3. Support: behavior which enhances someone else's feelings of personal worth and importance.

4. Interaction facilitation: behavior which encourages members of the group to develop close, mutually satisfying relationships.

Several studies conducted at the Research and Development Center for Individualized Schooling were related directly to the present study. Mendenhall (1977) utilized Bowers and Seashore's four dimensions of leadership and found that principal behaviors high in work facilitation, support, interaction facilitation and goal emphasis, produced a high level of job satisfaction among their staffs.

Moyle (1977) utilized House's work to investigate the effectiveness of the principal's leadership behavior pertaining to decision-making processes in schools. He found that principals were cautious about using instrumental leadership, but staffs recognized instrumental leadership as making positive contributions. Supportive leadership behavior also had a significant impact on decision making. The principals and staffs all recognized a need for leaders to give more attention to this dimension. Principals often got caught up in day-to-day affairs and lost sight of the importance of supportive behaviors. The participative leadership dimension was a factor in Moyle's research in that the school staffs recognized the use of participation by principals in the decision-making process. However, the study did not address staff reaction to the level of participative leadership used.

Gramenz (1974) utilized House's dimensions and found that when a principal used all three dimensions, that the instructional program of the school was viewed as being effective.

Much of the data in the present study suggested confirmation of many of the theories and studies. The administrative organization, processes utilized by the organization, and behavior of the principal, were all limited to the principal's leadership influence on the school program. This study offered the opportunity to view leadership stages and styles as interacting over a continuum of organizational change through time.

Lipham and Hoeh's (1974) leadership stages were linked to Bowers and Seashore's (1966) leadership dimensions and revealed the following relationships. During the attempted stages the principal used all of the dimensions described by Bowers and Seashore. The program was entirely new, the principal and staff were specifically selected to develop and implement the school's total program. The result was significant success on the principal's part to initiate the program. The success can be attributed to the principal's skill as a "visionary"--a term used frequently in the social system to describe his ability to lead with ideas--and a committed staff selected knowing the direction of change in the school.

During the accepted stage, the principal utilized appropriately all dimensions of leadership. During this stage the staff was composed primarily of the same people initially selected and

the few who were new were hired through a careful selection process. The organization's size allowed the principal to have both formal and informal contact with every staff member.

During the implemented leadership stage, the program was growing in size (numbers of teachers and students) and the principal's leadership behaviors began to show a preference for the dimensions of goal emphasis and support. He paid less attention to work facilitation, so that programs were functioning but began to show a lack of planning and coordination. Additionally, the present staff showed signs that the nucleus of original staff enjoyed greater formal and informal access to the principal. Thus, interaction facilitation behaviors on the principal's part were less successful as the organization grew and as his efforts were concentrated on goal emphasis and support.

The effective leadership stage was clouded with the issue of whether or not acceptance had occurred. The effective leadership outcomes should have been visible during the data gathering period for the present study. However, the principal's leadership style was affected by the growth of the school, and the diffused commitment of the staff raised questions about the principal's efforts in regard to the effectiveness stage. Again, a lack of attention given the work facilitation and interaction facilitation was evident and could account for the disagreement as to whether or not his leadership acts were meeting current expectations for resolving problematic states in the social system.

House's Taxonomy of Leader Behavior. House (1973) defined three dimensions of leader behavior--instrumental, supportive, and participative. Participative leadership was important to the present study because of the principal's commitment to allow for participation in the decision-making process. He exhibited consistant leadership behaviors in this mode. However, the range of issues submitted to the process, the time required to reach decisions, and the principal's influence on eventual decisions all raised questions about the effectiveness of the principal's participative behavior. In sum, careful consideration to the range of issues being submitted to the process would have been more effective. The staff perceived decision making pertaining to day-to-day issues as being inappropriate issues for the participative process. Some issues facing the school remained unresolved in the participative decision-making process for more than one school year, and the principal's quest for consensus was identified as the reason for the time involved. Moreover, the participants in the process viewed their participation at times as being manipulated by the principal to achieve his own agenda. These factors limited the success of the principal's participative leader behaviors.

Decision Theory

The school was committed to allowing anyone affected by a decision to participate in shaping the decision. Hence, the

organization was established to allow for participation and the necessary structures and processes were developed. In this overview of decision theory and research, however, decision involvement is given major emphasis.

Recent studies of schools that allowed for participative decision making have viewed decision making as a rational process (Speed, 1979; Watkins, 1978). These researchers used Lipham and Hoeh's (1974, p. 155) definition that decision making is an "awareness of a problematic state of a system, influenced by information and values, is reduced to competing alternatives, among which a choice is made based upon estimated outcomes states of the system." This definition formed the basis for a model of the basic dimension of decision making shown in Figure 4.2.

Decision involvement was the primary theme of the decision-making process in the school but both decision content and decision stages were important variables as well.

Decision Content. The functions of an organization affected by a decision identifies its content. Functions affected by decisions in an educational organization include curriculum and instruction, staff personnel, student personnel, finance and business management, school plant services, and home-school-community relations. Decisions cut across a range of these functions when a comprehensive change takes place (Lipham & Daresh, 1980).

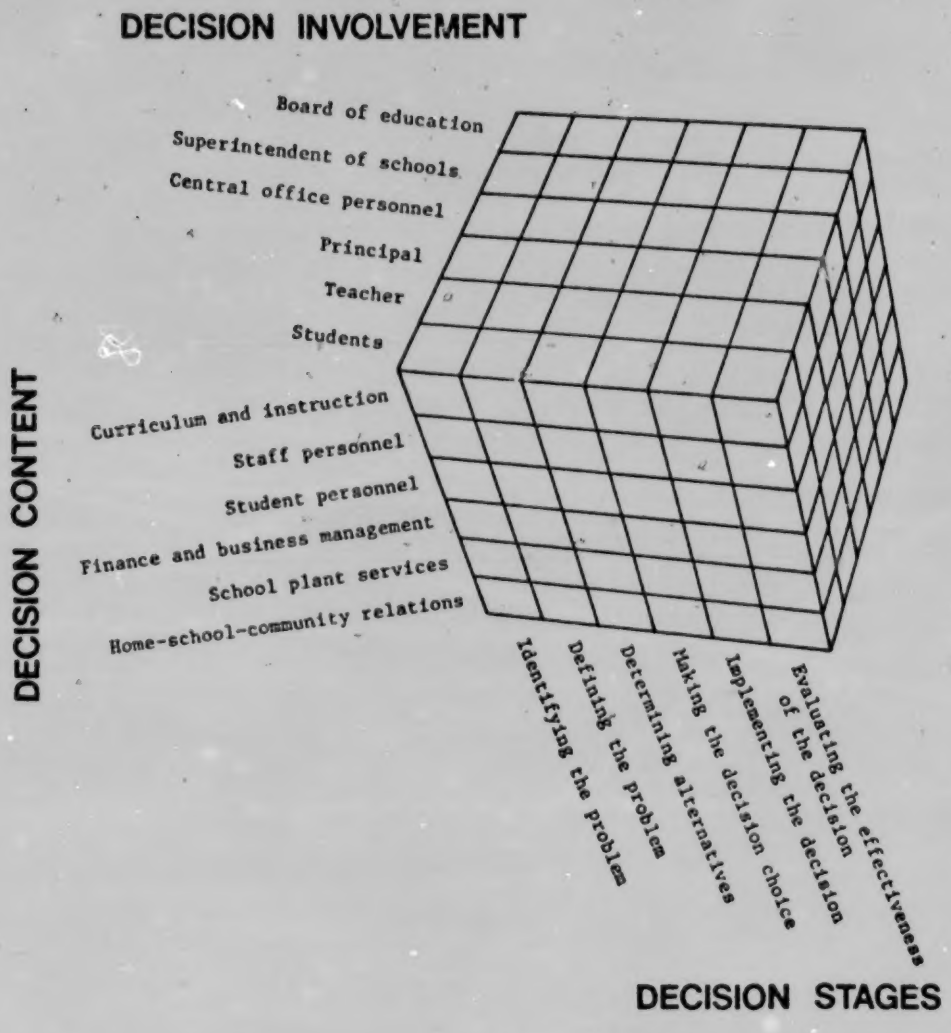

Figure 4.2. Basic Dimensions of the Decision-Making Process.

Adapted from: Lipham, J. M., Improving the decision-making skills of the principal. In J. A. Culbertson, C. Henson, & R. Morrison (Eds.), Performance objectives for school principals. Berkeley, California: McCutchan, 1974, p. 106.

The scope of the content of a decision was of particular importance to the present study because of the district's commitment to decentralization and local school autonomy. In the school there was confusion at times concerning the content and scope of any given decision and, consequently, who was affected.

Decision Stages. The rational decision-making model dictates a planned approach to making decisions. For the purpose of the study, decision stages identified by Barnard (1938), Bross (1953), Cyert and March (1963), and Simon (1960), were utilized. The following six steps represent the stages:

1. Identifying the nature of the problem.
2. Clarifying and defining the problem.
3. Generating and weighing alternatives.
4. Making the decision choice.
5. Implementing the decision solution.
6. Evaluating the effectiveness of the decision.

The commitment of the staff of the school to decentralized decision making made consideration of decision stages critical to the operation of the school. When everyone affected by a decision had influence in making the decision, care had to be taken to involve those affected at the proper stage.

Decision Involvement. The decision involvement dimension takes three factors into account: (1) who is involved, (2) how frequently they are involved, and (3) their level of participation

(Lipham & Daresh, 1980). Figure 4.2 indicates those who are potentially involved in making decisions. For the purpose of this study the dimension of involvement needed also to include classifieds, parents, and other agencies.

The frequency issue centers around how often groups or individuals are involved in the decision-making process. The range of frequency was identified by Speed (1979) as being "never," "sometimes," "usually," and "always." Important considerations in regard to frequency are the concepts of decision saturation, when a group or individual is involved too frequently; and decision deprivation, when those who want to be are not involved (Alutto & Belasco, 1972).

The last consideration of decision involvement concerns the level of participation. Five levels of participation were identified by Eye, Lipham, and Netzer (1965), as follows:

5. Make the decision
4. Suggest specific alternatives
3. Help formulate alternatives
2. Provide information about the decision
1. No involvement in the decision

Speed (1979) narrowed the above levels of involvement by utilizing a four-point scale ranging from "no involvement," to "little involvement," to "some involvement," to "great involvement."

In the school the concept of decision involvement was crucial.

Decision-Making Studies. Several researchers have examined the level of involvement in decision making in schools (Feldman, 1977; Holmquist, 1976; Mendenhall, 1977; Wright, 1976). These studies researched various aspects of decision making at all levels of the school. Two recent studies (Watkins, 1978; Speed, 1979) were of particular importance to the present study because they examined participative decision making in secondary schools.

Watkins (1978, pp. 131-142) studied the decision-making processes employed in six secondary schools that had implemented individualized education programs. He found:

1. The decision-making structures and processes utilized within the school make a significant contribution to the successful implementation of individualized schooling.
2. An articulated policy for making decisions is essential to the successful implementation of an innovative instructional program.
3. The principal performs a major role in determining the decision-making policy and in implementing the decision-making structures and processes.
4. A high level of staff participation in the decision-making process is characteristic of schools implementing programs of individualized schooling, is perceived

by staff to be much higher than in traditional schools, is a significant factor in the successful implementation of innovative instructional programs, and contributes highly to staff satisfaction.

5. Decision making within the school occurs primarily in small group settings, using a group process with a search for consensus.
6. Decision-making structures highly satisfying to staff are those which facilitate intradepartmental and interdepartmental exchange of information and opinion, accelerate decision making at the teacher-learner level, and afford ready access to administrators.
7. The decision-making process becomes less heuristic and more routinized as implementation of the innovation proceeds through the stages of the change process.

Speed (1979, pp. 137-157) examined the decision-making process in ten middle and junior high schools which had implemented programs to individualize schooling. The findings that have implications to this study are as follows:

1. Teachers want the collegial decision-making groups at the technical and managerial levels to have more say in the decision-making process.
2. Teachers differentiate decisional issues as either

technical or managerial according to their relevance to each functional level within a school.

3. Teachers exhibit greater decisional deprivation in regard to managerial than to technical level decisional issues.
4. Job satisfaction is generally high in regard to most facets of a teacher's professional occupation.

Formal decision-making theory was validated in this research site. The school placed much importance on participation in the decision-making process. Leadership behaviors described earlier were viewed as critical to the success of the decision-making process. Regarding content, the decentralized administrative organization and resulting decision-making of the school allowed for participation in all content areas. Anyone affected by a decision was involved in helping shape the decision.

Generally, the organization and processes worked as in the definition. Problems arose and were evident throughout the system when an affected constituency was left out of a decision that affected their functions. There were many instances of these oversights. Two examples that point out the scope of the omission were the principal's decision to hold early morning staff meetings before involving the staff, and a situation that arose with the students over an unclear criterion for the selection of the homecoming court. In both instances, the people affected by the

decision expected to be included in the decision-making process, but they were not. The correlation seems to be that given the expectation of involvement on the part of everyone affected by a decision exceptional care must be taken when evaluating the content of a given decision against who is affected.

In the school there was general adherence to rational decision-making in terms of the decision stages. When the structure and processes were used correctly, and they were in most cases, the first four stages were successfully utilized. Affected individuals and groups were involved in identifying the nature of the problem, clarifying and defining the problem, generating and weighing alternatives, and making the decision choice.

The decentralized structure and consensus process impeded the fulfillment of stages five and six. During the implementation stage, unclear lines of responsibility in the process beyond making the decision revealed some tasks left undone, and other tasks being duplicated. The principal's lack of attention during this stage to the work facilitation dimension of leadership affected the decision-making process. Evaluation of the program was just emerging as a priority of the school leadership and staff. There was a perceived need to slow down the change process and to refine and renew the existing programs. It is clear that evaluation had taken a back seat to the other stages involved. This is not to say evaluation had not taken place; there was much informal debate over the merits of

various aspects of the program, and several formal evaluations both internal and external had been conducted.

Much of the grounded practice in the school pertained to decision involvement. Both the strengths and weaknesses of the school's program were tied to the practice of involving those affected by a decision in making the decision. The consideration of decision involvement required an analysis of the data against all three factors of decision involvement, (1) who is involved, (2) how frequently they are involved, and (3) their level of participation.

Everyone in the school was involved, either directly or through a representative. The only exceptions to this were in instances where a breakdown in the process occurred. Those involved in the process questioned the legitimacy of their involvement when the issue was perceived to be in the principal's realm of interest.

Regarding the issue of frequency, again the structure called on individuals and groups to make decisions pertaining to every aspect of the school program. Speed's (1979) study identified decision saturation as a potential problem in such a structure, and the present study substantiated Speed's finding. The shortcoming of involvement in decision making was centered directly on the frequency issue. Speed concluded that the administrator must assess the discrepency between actual and desired involvement

as perceived by the participants, not the administrator. A consistant complaint in the school was that of being involved too often and on issues that were not perceived as being appropriate for their consideration. These issues were identified as issues the administration should resolve and were matters that pertained to the day-to-day management of the school's program. In sum, participants were generally involved in decision making on matters they perceived to be important, but were saturated with involvement in matters they perceived as being outside their desired level of involvement.

The final factor regarding decision involvement was the level of participation allowed the participants. In terms of the work of Eye, Lipham, and Netzer (1965), participation was generally allowed at the "make the decision level." There was "great involvement" when analyzed against Speed's (1979) scale. Again, when the process was successfully utilized, participants perceived themselves as being involved in making decisions. The staff selection process and budgeting process were examples of content areas wherein participants perceived themselves as making decisions. As with the frequency factor, problems arose over the range of issues submitted to the process. Participants perceived themselves as making decisions that clearly could have been made more expediently and effectively by the administration. Moreover, at times, participants questioned their actual level of participation because of

the principal's perceived control of decisions within his areas of personal interest.

Motivation Theory

Substantial data were obtained in reference to the satisfaction and dissatisfaction of staff regarding their work. Motivation theory allowed the data to be analyzed beyond organization, leadership and decision-making theory.

Maslow's Theory. Maslow's (1953, p. 85) ideas served as a foundation for other motivation theories pertinent to the data gathered during the present study. His theory was illustrated by the following statement:

> Human needs arrange themselves in hierarchies of prepotency. That is to say, the appearance of one need usually rests on the prior satisfaction of another, more prepotent need. Man is a perpetually wanting animal. Also no need or drive can be treated as if it were isolated or discrete; every drive is related to the state of satisfaction or dissatisfaction of other drives.

Maslow's theory of human motivation was based on needs satisfaction on a hierarchial scale. The physiological needs are identified on the lower part of the hierarchical scale. These include the physiological drives; food is an example.

When physiological needs are satisfied the subject ceases to exist solely to seek their satisfaction and is released to seek higher order needs. Next on the scale are safety needs. In schools, safety is a limited factor because of the protection

offered through order, the prevalence of savings, insurance, tenure, and retirement programs. Love occupies the next plane. Released from pursuing physiological and safety needs, an individual turns to higher social needs. Love should be viewed both as giving and receiving to satisfy this level of need. Self esteem occupies the next level of need. People having satisfied the lower level needs turn to acceptance by others and accepting others based on real capacity and achievement. Meeting esteem needs leads to feelings of confidence, self worth, strength and of making contributions to society. Finally, having satisfied other needs people seek self-fulfillment. These needs are individualistic. Each person demonstrates self-actualization differently and few obtain this level because of their failure to fully satisfy the other needs.

Porter, Sergiovanni and Elliott's Adaptation of Maslow's Theory. Porter (1962) modified Maslow's theory by integrating the concept of autonomy into the model. His justification for revising the hierarchy was based on the conclusion that teachers with their expertise were demanding control in schools. Figure 4.3 represents Porter's adaptation of Maslow's hierarchy of motivational factors, and Sergiovanni and Elliott's (1975) concept of participation and performance.

Sergiovanni and Elliott utilized Porter's hierarchy to explain the motivational potency of professional teachers. They introduced the concepts of participation and performance into the

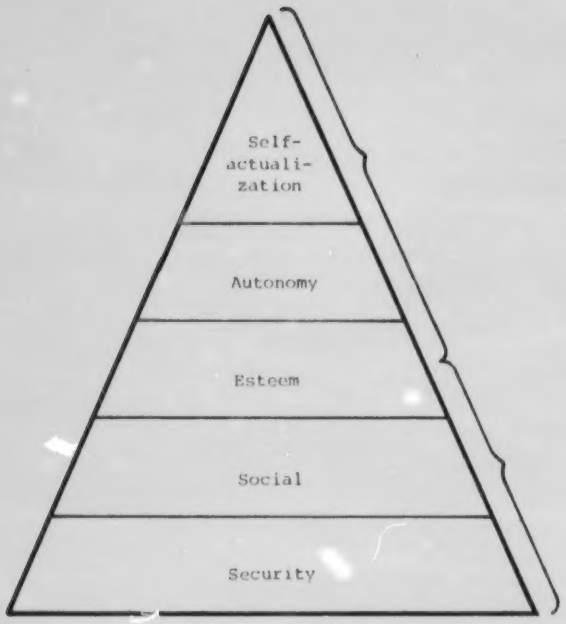

Figure 4.3. The Hierarchy of Needs: Participation and Performance.

Source: Sergiovanni, T. J., & Starratt, R. J., Supervision: Human Perspectives, (2nd ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill, 1979, p. 156.

hierarchy. They defined participation as the legal requirement of a teaching job, e.g., what is expected of an employee to receive a paycheck. Performance, on the other hand, far exceeds the normal requirements of a job and the rewards are a satisfaction of themselves and their work.

In terms of the hierarchy of needs, participation would meet the lower needs of security, social, and possibly esteem, whereas performance would satisfy the higher needs of esteem, autonomy, and self-actualization (see Figure 4.3).

Herzberg's Motivation-Hygiene Theory. Herzberg (1966) proposed two categories to explain the motivation of workers: hygiene factors which were synonymous with the participation concept described earlier, and motivators which were synonymous with the performance concept described earlier. The hygiene and motivator factors are shown in Table 4.3.

Herzberg's (1966) work established that removing hygiene dissatisfiers only raised employees' effort to an acceptable level of work--the participation stage. Hygiene factors caused dissatisfaction, but when the dissatisfiers were removed then satisfaction with the work and performance level effort was not a result. Motivators provided satisfaction and increased performance on the job. The absence of motivators, however, did not lead to dissatisfaction, but led to work at the participation level.

TABLE 4.3

THE MOTIVATION AND HYGIENE FACTORS

Motivation (Found in the work itself)	Hygiene (Found in the environment of work)
Achievement	Salary
Recognition	Possibility of growth
Work itself	Interpersonal relations (subordinates)
Responsibility	Interpersonal relations (peers)
Advancement	Supervision--technical
	Company policy and administration
	Working conditions
	Personal life
	Status
	Job security

There was strong evidence in the school related to Herzberg's theory. The staff exhibited some dissatisfaction linked to interpersonal relations on working matters with the principal, school policy and administration, and working conditions. At the same time, however, paralleling the dissatisfaction was a high performance level effort by teachers in their classrooms. This performance level was linked to achievement, the work itself, responsibility, and advancement. The central question that arose was: Can a school's staff show a high level of dissatisfaction related to motivators be carried to the extreme so that they become hygiene factors?

Organizational Climate Theory

There was an interaction between the selected school's organizational climate and the administrative organization, processes, and behaviors utilized in the school.

Halpin and Croft (1962) noted that schools have "personalities" of their own. Halpin (1966, p. 31) gave the following example of what was meant by personality.

> In one school the teachers and principals are zestful and exude confidence in what they are doing. They find pleasure in working with each other; this pleasure is transmitted to students. . . . In a second school the brooding discontentment of teachers is palpable; the principal tries to hide his incompetence and his lack of direction behind a cloak of authority . . . and the psychological sickness of such a faculty spills over on the students who, in their own frustration, feed back to teachers a mood of despair. A third school is marked by neither joy or despair, but by hollow ritual . . . in a strange way the show doesn't seem to be "for real."

Halpin and Croft's Organizational Climate Theory. Halpin and Croft (1962) developed a scale to measure a school's organizational climate. The researchers developed 64 Likert-type items called the Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire (OCDQ) with which a respondent could describe his or her school climate. The following items represent a sample of the questions on the scale:

1. Administrative paperwork is burdensome at this school.
2. The principal uses constructive criticism.
3. Teachers talk about leaving the school.
4. The rules set by the principal are never questioned.

5. The principal does personal favors for teachers.

The 64 items were assigned to eight subtests, four pertained to the teacher behaviors and four pertained to leader behavior. Table 4.4 defines the characteristics of teacher and leader behaviors. From the eight subtests, six profiles were identified that allowed the comparison of school profiles across the climate dimensions. Table 4.5 illustrates the characteristic profiles for climate types. Authenticity emerged as a major issue in the work of Halpin and Croft (1962). They suggested that although the term was used, more research was needed truly to understand its meaning and influence on school climate.

The school had a classic open climate. Teachers considered the principal as very low in hindrance. Intimacy was average; the staff enjoyed one another; and there was a relatively low level of conflict. Even so, a degree of independence was observable, and the staff had very few relationships beyond the work setting. Disengagement was low; teachers were committed to the school and their efforts in the classroom reflected this commitment. Esprit was high--especially when evaluated as morale associated with task accomplishment.

Production emphasis was low, the principal allowed almost total autonomy in the classrooms. His curriculum leadership was example-oriented and very nondirective. Aloofness was low; the school staff and principal interacted very informally and this was

TABLE 4.4

THE ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE DESCRIPTION QUESTIONNAIRE

(OCDQ) SUBSCALES

Characteristics of Faculty Behavior:

1. Hindrance refers to the teachers' feelings that the principal burdens them with routine duties, committee work, and other requirements that the teachers perceive as unnecessary "busywork."
2. Intimacy refers to the teachers' enjoyment of warm and friendly personal relations with one another.
3. Disengagement refers to the teachers' tendency "to go through the motions" without an actual commitment to the task at hand.
4. Esprit refers to morale growing out of a sense of both task accomplishment and social needs satisfaction.

Characteristics of Principal Behavior:

5. Production Emphasis refers to close supervisory behavior on the part of the principal. The principal is highly directive and not sensitive to faculty feedback.
6. Aloofness refers to formal and impersonal principal behavior; the principal goes by the "book" and maintains social distance from his staff.
7. Consideration refers to warm, friendly behavior by the principal. The principal tries to be helpful and do a little something extra for his faculty when he can.
8. Thrust refers to dynamic principal behavior in which an attempt "to move the organization" is made through the example that the principal sets for the teachers.

TABLE 4.5

CHARACTERISTIC PROFILES FOR CLIMATE TYPES

Climate Dimension	Climate Type					
	Open	Autonomous	Controlled	Familiar	Paternal	Closed
Hindrance	Low	Low	High	Low	Low	High
Intimacy	Average	High	Low	High	Low	Average
Disengagement	Low*	Low	Low	High	High	High*
Esprit	High*	High	High	Average	Low	Low*
Production emphasis	Low	Low	High	Low	High	High
Aloofness	Low	High	High	Low	Low	High
Consideration	High	Average	Low	High	High	Low
Thrust	High*	Average	Average	Average	Average	Low*

*Salient characteristics of the open and closed climates

promoted by the principal. Consideration was high. The principal was friendly and was seen as being effective in getting all the resources he could for the school. Finally, the principal's efforts to move the organization through change provided high thrust to the school. He was perceived as being the principle innovator and his leads were followed, especially in curriculum leadership.

If a problem existed in the school's climate, it was concerning the concept of authenticity. There was an emerging problem with staff regarding the principal's great influence on the decision-making process. Their emerging concern was centered on how authentic their participation was, based on the principal's perceived control in some decisional content areas.

Administrative Processes

Various administrative processes are dynamically interrelated with all of the aforementioned theory. Additionally, numerous authors have developed taxonomies of the processes of administration. For the purposes of this study, the taxonomy developed by Chase (1955) was applied to the data.

Chase's Taxonomy. Chase included planning, allocating, stimulating, coordinating, and evaluating in his taxonomy of processes utilized in administration. Definitions of the processes include the following (Chase, 1955 p. 17):

1. Planning: The attempt to control the future in the direction of the desired goals through decisions made on the basis of careful estimates of the probable consequences of possible courses of action.

2. Allocation: The procurement and allotment of human and material resources in accordance with the operating plan.

3. Stimulation: The motivation of behavior in terms of the desired outcomes.

4. Coordination: The process of fitting together the various groups and operations into an integrated pattern of purpose-achieving work.

5. Evaluation: The continuous examination of the effects produced by the ways in which the other processes listed are performed.

Planning, allocating, stimulating, coordinating, and evaluating all take place within an organizational structure that is a social system. Administrators utilize the processes in decision making and according to their own leadership style. The processes either promote or impede change within the social system.

The relevance of administrative process to this study emerged as grounded theory from the site pointed to the interrelatedness of the processes and formal theory about administration. The use of the processes by the administration delineated other possible uses of the processes and pointed out dysfunctions resulting from that use. The administrative processes offered an approach that cut across the various theories and helped explain both the strengths and weaknesses of the administrative organization and the behaviors observed.

Planning was a major task for everyone in the school. There was a dichotomy concerning planning. The program reflected vast and effective planning in that many innovations were in place and working. Also, there was a thorough network for planning regarding program change and improvement. On the other hand, day-to-day operations revealed limited planning and the result was a series of small crises that could have been avoided through effective planning regarding these operational issues. This dichotomy could be attributed, in part, to the principal's behavior in the various leadership dimensions. The planning process was made difficult on an operational basis because of the decentralized organization, and was viewed as a trade-off in efficiency for the autonomy each unit was afforded.

Allocating resources was a strength of the principal's leadership behavior and of the decision-making process. A schoolwide set of priorities was accepted by everyone across the various subject departments and units. Moreover, there was general agreement in the various groups that comprised the school community that the staff was unexcelled by any group of teachers in their composite experience.

The stimulating process again reflected the principal's direct influence. As with planning, there was a dichotomy in the stimulation process. The principal was generally recognized as being responsible for the "performance" level work the

teachers accomplished in their classrooms. Their motivation was perceived to be linked directly to their autonomy and the principal's leadership behaviors regarding the curriculum. However, as discussed earlier, the school's day-to-day operation exhibited some nagging problems. Such things as attendance procedures, record-keeping procedures, discipline procedures, and staff parking remained issues because of a lack of stimulation provided by the principal to resolve these issues. The staff's effort in regard to these tasks was perceived to be at or below the desired participation level.

The coordination process was affected by the decentralized nature of the school program. In effect, some efficiency in coordination was given up to allow for the benefits of participation in decision making and for the autonomy allowed the subschools and individuals. The lack of attention by the principal to the work facilitation dimension of leadership contributed to a lack of coordination. Communication was another aspect of coordination that caused problems. Historically, the school lacked a vehicle for clear lines of communication. Staff meetings were infrequently held, and the results of various subgroup meetings were not generally communicated to others affected beyond the meetings. However, efforts were being made to improve the school's communication processes.

The evaluation process was somewhat ignored in the massive effort of organizational change. An emerging effort to evaluate the school was being undertaken to assess the various programs and solve problems associated with change. The school staff welcomed the present study as an opportunity to provide information along with other evaluation efforts taken or planned.

Grounded Theory

Data analysis of an ethnographic research effort is an ongoing process generated from the data observed and collected through rigorous research. Grounded propositions come from the data and are systematically worked out in relationship to the data during the course of the research (Glaser & Strauss, 1967).

A four-step process described by Glaser and Strauss (1967) as the constant comparative method was used whereby categories, properties, and hypotheses about general problems were generated; incidents applicable to each category, property, or hypothesis were compared; categories and properties were integrated; and the grounded theoretical propositions were limited and then written as grounded theory.

Once the post-fieldwork stage of the research was begun, recurring themes were identified and propositions were constructed with corresponding data presented to support those themes and propositions (Bogdan & Taylor, 1975; Glaser & Strauss, 1967).

At this point in time, a series of questions had to be answered. These questions were developed by Bogdan and Taylor (1975) and included:

1. Do the data support the propositions?
2. Were the data statements solicited or unsolicited?
3. How much influence did the observers have in the setting?
4. Were the data statements made in the presence of others?
5. Are the data statements direct statements or inferences?
6. Who said what and did what?
7. Were the subjects telling the truth?

The grounded propositions that emerged from the data of the present study presented specific information about the administrative organization, processes, and behaviors of the selected school.

These grounded theoretical propositions were already discussed in relationship to existing formal theory and other related studies. The data supported some existing formal theory and other research efforts, identified needed modifications of some existing formal theory, and pointed to the potential needs for new grounded theory. The next two sections will explore these modifications and propose new grounded theories and relationships.

Modification of Formal Theory. Grounded practice differed from what should have been the case in several formal theories. This section will examine those differences and explain potential modifications in change, organization, decision-making, and motivation theory.

Change Theory

The change theory described earlier utilized Hage and Aiken's (1970) four-stage model that includes evaluation, initiation, implementation, and routinization. These four stages explained much of the process of change in the school. However, there was a perception among the staff about the need for renewal and refinement activities. The first modification of the change model was to link Hage and Aiken's four stages with the IGE implementation model's fifth and sixth stages, refinement and renewal (Klausmeier, Karges, & Krupa, 1977). This adaptation seemed to explain the staff's participation in the change process. Hage and Aiken, Klausmeier, and others seem to leave unexplained the "seed" or "genesis" of change, pointing to the need to reevaluate the processes and to propose that the origin and leadership activities are theoretically out of phase with the member's change phase. The founding board, the superintendent, and the principal were all ahead of the school's other members in the change process. Table 4.6 shows this proposed relationship.

TABLE 4.6

CHANGE THEORY--LEADERSHIP AND MEMBER PHASES

Leader(s)		Members
Philosophy	⟷	Routinization
Vision	⟷	Routinization
Assessment	⟷	Routinization
Initiation	⟷	Evaluation
Implementation	⟷	Initiation
Routinization	⟷	Implementation
Refinement	⟷	Routinization
Renewal	⟷	Refinement
Evaluation	⟷	Renewal

There was a sound philosophical basis for the change promoted in the school. There was leadership with vision--an entrepreneur, as defined by Pettigrew (1979), "any person who takes primary responsibility for mobilizing people and other resources to initiate, give purpose to, build, and manage a new organization." The assessment phase requires a leader to predetermine any change in attitude of organization members required by the change; any change in the roles within the organization required by the change; and the resources required for the change. The assessment should predetermine expected outcomes of the change. The other terms remained consistent with past definitions. This proposed modification explained

change at West High School wherein the leaders were recognized as having a philosophy, vision, and as having completed the assessment phase.

Organization Theory

Hage's (1965) seven propositions failed to explain totally the data. The modification suggested here requires a recognition that external factors may change some of Hage's seven propositions. The school district, and subsequently the school, had strict external limits placed on resources. An examination of the propositions revealed the following:

1. The higher the centralization, the higher the production. The school accomplished a high level of production, yet it was decentralized.
2. The higher the formalization, the higher the efficiency. Again, the school accomplished a high level of efficiency, yet had very little formalization.
3. The higher the stratification, the higher the production. The stratification was not high, but the production level was perceived as being high.

Another deviation in practice caused by external factors limiting resources pertained to the ideal organization types. The school was an organic organization except for production and efficiency, which were also high. External resource limitations forced these two factors to emerge as high.

Decision-Making Theory

Regarding decision making, much of the grounded practice was explained by theory described earlier in this chapter. However, three facets of the decision-making process in the school required further exploration: (1) the perceived overinvolvement or saturation of the staff; (2) the principal's influence and control of the decision-making process; and (3) the effect of representatives in the decision-making process.

There was much concern expressed by participants about the use of consensus decision making. They perceived themselves involved at the saturation point on some issues that could have been resolved by the administration more effectively and efficiently. The food service, school environment, litter, locker vandalism, and parking were examples of those issues submitted to the consensus process that were perceived as issues the administration should have made decisions about without additional staff involvement. These issues were not outside the participants' interest or expertise per se, but were perceived as issues that needed direct and rapid resolution. Instead, five years into the program, because of the consensus process, the school had not resolved such minor, nagging issues. Consensus worked best when applied to issues that were program issues; it broke down when consensus was applied to maintenance issues. Program issues were identified as those affecting instruction, advising, budgeting,

staff selection, space allocation, and the refinement and renewal of existing programs. Maintenance issues were identified as daily operating matters that required day-to-day administration such as attendance, discipline, food servite, and parking. There was no lack of interest in the maintenance issues. Moreover, there was considerable concern in the school pertaining to them, and there was little doubt that the staff had expertise to share in resolving some of these issues. The overriding factor in their saturation seemed to be the time it took to resolve some problems that were submitted to the consensus decision-making mode.

The principal's interest in any given issue was another modifying factor in decision theory related to grounded practice in the school. Speed (1979) suggested that in addition to frequency and extent, a host of variables should be regarded as affecting the decision condition. These variables included leadership style, trust, role conflicts, organization structure, student outcomes, organizational commitment, personality types, and teachers' zones of acceptance. The staff felt that they lacked influence in the decision-making process on some issues. They perceived the principal as controlling decisions that were important to him. Some staff even saw the principal as the ultimate decision maker. The basis for this influence was perceived as controlling information, manipulating representatives on committees and task forces, controlling the timeline for decision making, holding discretionary

budget power, and assigning the resources needed to implement a decision. In instances wherein the decision-making process was utilized and participants perceived their involvement as being manipulated, there was considerable dissatisfaction. Again, as with the length of time variable, participants may have had interest and expertise, but the dissatisfaction created was associated with the perceived degree of control by the principal.

The final grounded practice versus formal theory consideration concerned the organizational structure and the resulting impact of representatives in the decision-making process. When representatives attended decision-making groups, the representation they gave their constituency at times may have been beyond their interest and/or expertise. The likelihood of this happening was accentuated by the selection process which was nonpolitical in the sense that people did not campaign or take stands on issues. This practice affected the levels of interest and expertise representatives had on any given issue. The school allowed for those affected by a decision to help shape the decision, but in many cases not directly. A representative helped shape the decision and consequently his or her interest and expertise affected the resulting decision. In those cases, although there was involvement, there was a question about the representativeness of such involvement.

Motivation Theory

Grounded practice in the school interacted with motivation theory in an interesting way. There was both a high level of performance effort by staff in its work, yet there was some dissatisfaction among the staff related to the participation level of work. High staff performance was associated with many of the motivators identified by Herzberg (1966) such as achievement, recognition, work itself, responsibility, and advancement; whereas the participation level was associated with Herzberg's hygiene factors such as working conditions, school policy and administration, and interpersonal relations. An explanation of this phenomenon might be partially explained by considering hygiene factors as having a linear relationship and motivators as having a curvilinear relationship. This is to say that hygiene factors when carried to their extreme remain hygiene factors; however, when motivators are carried to their extreme they potentially become hygiene factors. The autonomy given teachers provided an example of this proposed relationship. Superb performances in the classroom, which were partially explained by the autonomy given teachers, became a dissatisfier when examined in the context of teacher behavior identified as linked to hygiene factors. As an example, the outcome of everyone "doing his or her own thing" with school policy regarding attendance and discipline caused breakdowns in the school's operation that led to dissatisfaction with working

conditions, the administration, and peer relations. Teachers demonstrated a concern about attendance procedures but not one teacher would attribute his or her dissatisfaction as a direct result of his or her own autonomy.

Another indicator contributing to the proposed curvilinear relationship of motivators was the intensity in the work setting. Much of this intensity was centered on motivating factors, yet it resulted in overload that was recognized as "burn-out" by the staff.

In terms of the work itself, the school may have enlarged the teaching role to the extreme that conflicts among responsibilities caused some dissatisfaction, e.g., being a teacher and an advisor without being relieved of any previous responsibilities. Another factor was the responsibility placed on the participants in the decision-making process. The responsibility was identified as a motivator; however, because of other variables described earlier in the decision-making discussion, dissatisfaction was associated with the high level of involvement in decision-making. Finally, regarding teacher recognition, a problem centered around the teachers being told as a group that they were excellent teachers and doing excellent jobs, but individually teachers complained that a lack of recognition was causing them to reconsider whether or not they should attempt projects that required extra effort.

Interaction of Theory in Grounded Practice. There was strong evidence for the need to develop an interactive model for administrative process and behavior. Theory taken in a singular context ignores the interaction of variables caused by other theory. Social systems theory offered value in that it recognized that organizational and personal dimensions interact regarding new roles. However, it was of somewhat limited value to the present study because of the emphasis on change, consensus decision making, and leadership.

The interactions of the change processes with leadership styles and stages and with decision involvement is represented by the proposed model in Table 4.7. Grounded practice of the present school provided much of the basis for this model. An analysis of both strengths and weaknesses in the school's program helped in conceptualizing this model. The model suggests that there were appropriate leadership stages (attempted, accepted, implemented, and effective) and styles (goal emphasis, work facilitation support, and interaction facilitation) for each change phase (philosophy, vision, assessment, initiation, implementation, routinization, refinement, renewal, and evaluation) and that leaders and members should be out of phase in the change process. Members enter the process at the evaluation phase after leaders have developed a philosophy, vision, completed an assessment, and have initiated the change.

TABLE 4.7

THE MODEL OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN LEADERSHIP, CHANGE, AND DECISION-MAKING PROCESS

Dominant Leadership		Change Phases		Decision Involvement		
Styles	Stages	Leaders	Members	Who	Frequency	Level
Goal Emphasis Work Facilitation	Attempted Attempted Attempted	Philosophy Vision Assessment	Routinization	Expertise Expertise Expertise	Often Often Very Often	Provide Information Formulate Alternatives Suggest Alternatives
Goal Emphasis Support	Attempted	Initiation	Evaluation	Interest-Expertise	Very Often	Make Decision
Work Facilitation Interaction Facilitation	Accepted	Implementation	Initiation	Interest-Expertise-Constituency	Very Often	Make Decision
Work Facilitation Support	Implemented	Routinization	Implementation	Expertise-Constituency	Often	Make Decision
Work Facilitation Interaction Facilitation	Effective	Refinement	Routinization	Constituency	Seldom	Make Decision
Goal Emphasis Support	Attempted	Renewal	Refinement	Interest-Expertise-Constituency	Very Often	Make Decision
Goal Emphasis Interaction Facilitation	Effective	Evaluation	Renewal	Expertise-Constituency	Often	Make Decision

In an organization that allows for participation in the decision-making process, the leadership and change variables are linked to decision involvement. The model further identified appropriate involvement in the decision-making process during the change phases. First, the "who" question of involvement should be asked to assess interest, expertise, and the newly defined category of constituency or representative. Second, the frequency of involvement should be measured on a scale including "very often," "often," "seldom," and "never." Third, the level of involvement should range from "providing information," "formulating alternatives," "suggesting alternatives" to "making the decision."

The model provided a framework to analyze the data of the present study and served to verify strengths and weaknesses in the school caused by the relationships between leadership behavior, change processes, and decision-making processes. Grounded practice was congruent with the model during the first three phases of change. The school board and superintendent were the initial leaders and were joined later by the principal and key staff members. During the leader initiation phase of change, the principal and key staff members became the leaders. Again, leadership stages and style and all aspects of decision involvement were appropriate for the phases of change involved. During the last four phases of change identified by the model, some breakdowns occurred in appropriate leadership stages, styles, and in the frequency of involvement.

An analysis of the last four change phases taken one phase at a time revealed the following:

1. Routinization - Implementation. Fast organizational growth with the resulting influx of new members raised questions about the implementation stage of leadership. There was some resistance among the staff to accept leadership efforts. This created a situation wherein a range of leadership stages existed among the staff--usually associated with their tenure in the program. Considering the predominant style, work facilitation was needed, but was not provided. Moreover, the frequency of involvement was judged as "very often" and perceived as saturated. There was also some question about the effectiveness of the representatives as they addressed a range of questions that may have exceeded their interest and expertise.
2. Refinement - Routinization. Again, the identified stage of leadership would not have been effective for all. A range existed among the members from attempted to effective leadership stages. Work facilitation was not the predominant style; hence, there were some breakdowns and duplication of efforts in the operation of the school. The principal's leadership style continued to be on goal emphasis and support which were incongruent

with this phase. Again, the decision involvement level was perceived to be saturated. The other two aspects of decision involvement "who" and the level were, however, appropriate for this phase.

3. Renewal - Refinement. There were partial efforts at renewal and refinement, however the need for this phase was perceived greater than the effort. This created a situation in the school that reflected problems resulting from incomplete previous phases. In addition to the problem of only a partial effort in the renewal-refinement phase, when major efforts were undertaken, only the representatives were involved in the resulting decisions. Grounded practice suggested that all members with interest and expertise should have been reinvolved.
4. Evaluation-Renewal. Again, only partial efforts were made regarding this phase. The vertical interaction of these phases (routinization-implementation, refinement-routinization, renewal-refinement, and evaluation-renewal) seemed to be caused by the incomplete resolution of each phase starting with routinization-implementation. To the extent that evaluation-renewal phase was attempted, the leadership stage and styles exhibited by the principal seemed congruent with the model. All three aspects of decision involvement in this phase were

congruent with the model. Problems associated with this phase were closely identified with the lack of recognition for the need to give evaluation-renewal proper emphasis.

Summary

This chapter has included a review of formal theory related to the grounded propositions proposed in Chapter Three. This review included theory related to change, organizational structure, leadership, roles, decision making, motivation, and organizational climate. In addition to the theory reviewed, Chase's taxonomy of the processes utilized in school administration were utilized to analyze the data. Finally, the data were explored to reveal any modifications in existing theory, and/or potential new theory resulting from the analysis of grounded practice in the school.

CHAPTER V

OVERVIEW, CONCLUSIONS, AND IMPLICATIONS

This chapter contains three sections. The first is an overview of the study. The second contains the conclusions and implications for practice and is organized according to formal theories that emerged from the data. The third section indicates further research directions based on the findings of the study.

Overview of the Study

The research methods utilized in this study were ethnographic techniques directed at describing, explaining, and modifying formal theory based on grounded practice in an innovative secondary school. The study was specifically aimed at the grounded practice associated with the school's administrative structure, administrative processes, and administrative behavior. The conceptual and theoretical bases of the study emerged from the research data as grounded propositions (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). There was a linkage of grounded practice in the school with theories of change, organization, role, leadership, decision making, motivation, organizational climate, and the administrative process. Moreover, grounded practice indicated that some modifications in theories were warranted as a result of the study. Additionally, an interactive relationship among leadership, change, and decision making emerged.

Conclusions and Implications for Practice

This section contains the conclusions reached based on the analysis of data, as well as implications of each conclusion for administrative practice. Conclusions and implications are presented in relationship to each theory.

Change Theory

Present models of change proved somewhat limited for describing and explaining grounded practice in the school regarding change. Two modifications were required to explain the differences. First, Hage and Aiken's (1970) four-phase model (evaluation, initiation, implementation, and routinization) explained much of the practice and when linked to the refinement and renewal phases of Klausmeier, Karges, and Krupa (1977) the picture of the change process was complete. Second, there was evidence that the change phases for leaders and members were different. Leaders in the school district, and later the school, completed the philosophy and vision and began the assessment phases before involving members at the evaluation stage. In general, phases that followed were identified as: leader implementation-member initiation; leader routinization-member implementation; leader refinement-member routinization; leader renewal-member refinement; leader evaluation-member renewal.

The implications for practice are twofold. The first is that orderly change cannot take place if leaders get "bogged down" simultaneously with the member phases. Leaders must recognize each change phase and continually assess progress through the current phase. This was particularly evidenced by the member change phase of refinement and renewal in the present study. The growth of the organization, changes in staff, and maturity of the program all pointed to a recognition among participants that these phases were in progress and needed attention. There was a call among the staff for a "breather" from more change so that problems could be resolved regarding the programs already initiated.

The second implication is that leaders must start with a philosophy that will give new programs a firm basis of commitment, a vision that will provide structures to the progress and help to resolve potential problems associated with the envisioned change, and a thorough assessment of the proposed change's impact on all aspects of the organization. This allows the leaders to avoid the pitfall mentioned earlier of getting "bogged down" in any given change phase. It also gives leaders a management stance that requires them to be at least one phase ahead of members throughout the change process.

Administrative Organization

The school's decentralized nature was examined utilizing Hage's (1965) axiomatic theory. The organization was organic,

emphasizing adaptiveness. The incongruence between grounded practice and Hage's theory was associated with the outcomes of production and efficiency. The high levels of production and efficiency were contrary to the organic model. An explanation for the differences seemed to be externally imposed spending limits.

The implication for practice is that if a school staff desires the outcomes achieved by an organic organization, high production and efficiency do not have to be sacrificed. If external controls, for example, promote high production and efficiency in an organic organization, then it is reasonable to assume that internal controls could also achieve the same outcomes.

Role Theory

Social systems theory provided a framework in which to view the expectations placed on new and existing roles in the school. Lipham (1979) described the analytical value of social systems theory when researching the roles of an organization.

Three new or changed roles were explored: (1) the principal's role with the new expectation of allowing for consensus decision making, (2) the unit principals' role created by the decentralized administrative organization, and (3) the new student advising role for every certificated staff member.

The Principal's Role. The principal's role in the decision-making process in schools that strive for consensus decision making must be congruently perceived by the various reference groups.

In the present study, subordinate reference groups at times were at odds with the principal and most of these conflicts were caused by differing expectations of the principal's role in the decision-making process.

Unit Principal Role. In a school having a decentralized organization with autonomous subschools, the role expections of the unit principal should be congruent among all reference groups.

The first implication is that the principal and unit principals should establish their bounds of autonomy. In the school examined there was some doubt about the actual influence of the unit principals because of uncertain parameters associated with their roles. Second, once the bounds of autonomy are established, schoolwide responsibilities must be carefully assigned to avoid duplicated and unassigned tasks.

A footnote regarding the role of unit principals pertained to the teachers' perception that being allowed to choose the unit principal was a strength of the school. This perception generally accounted for role expectation congruence among the unit principals and their teachers.

The Teacher Advisor Role. The expanded role of advising can achieve personalization for students in the school setting. The advising role requires interreference group agreement as to expected outcomes.

In West High School there was a high degree of agreement among the various reference groups regarding the value of the advising program. Although there was considerable difference in how each advisor fulfilled the role, the consistent outcome of personalizing the school for each student was achieved.

The implication is that schools can personalize settings for students by expanding staff roles to include advising. Care must be taken to achieve agreement regarding the value and expectations of the new role dimension of teachers as advisors.

Leadership Theory

Several researchers contributed to the theoretical framework utilized to examine effects of leadership behaviors in the school. Lipham and Hoeh (1974) proposed four stages of leadership, including attempted, accepted, implemented, and effective leadership. Bowers and Seashore (1966) identified four styles of leadership, including goal emphasis, work facilitation, support, and interaction facilitation. These two concepts (stages and styles) were linked and examined in the context of which stage and style was most appropriate for each change phase the organization had experienced. Additionally, House's (1971) taxonomy of leadership behavior was reviewed to utilize the concept of participative leadership in light of the school's decentralized organizational structure and consensus decision-making process. The conclusions regarding leadership supported other studies (Mendenhall, 1977;

Moyle, 1977; Gramenz, 1974) which stressed the need for appropriate leadership stages and styles regarding change phases and decision making. Grounded practice in the present study revealed a dynamic interrelationship among leadership styles and stages, change phases, and participative decision making. Additionally, regarding House's (1971) participative style, leaders must assess members' perceptions concerning their desired degree of involvement as opposed to setting normative expectations for the degree of involvement. Moreover, even when participation in the decision-making process is allowed, leader behaviors in the process must be perceived as legitimate.

The implications for schools that desire change and promote participation in the decision-making process is that leaders must continually assess their school's progress through each change phase and allow for the appropriate degree of involvement in decision making and then apply the most effective leadership stage and style at each phase. Specifically, at the initiation-evaluation phase the leader is attempting change and should be providing goal emphasis and support. Regarding decision making, those with interest and expertise should be involved, very often, and at the make-the-decision level. During the implementation-initiation change phase, the leadership attempts should be accepted and the leader's style should provide for work facilitation and interaction facilitation. The degree of decision involvement should include those

who are interested, experts, and representatives of affected individuals, very often, and at the make-the-decision level. In the routinization-implementation change phase, the leader stage should be implemented; the style should provide for work facilitation and support; and the degree of involvement in decision making should include experts and representatives, often, and at the make-the-decision level. Moving into the refinement-routinization change phase, the leader stage should be effective and the style should reflect work facilitation and interaction facilitation. The degree of involvement in decision making should include representatives, not very often, and at the make-the-decision level. During the renewal and refinement change phase, the leader stage shifts back to attempted, and the styles should exhibit goal emphasis and support. Regarding decision involvement, those with interest, expertise, and representatives of affected individuals are involved, very often, and at the make-the-decision level. Lastly, during the evaluation-renewal change phase the leader stage should be effective and styles should provide for goal emphasis and interaction facilitation. The appropriate degree of decision involvement should include experts and representatives, often, and at the make-the-decision level.

Decision Theory

Decision involvement was the primary thrust of the decision-making process in the school. However, decisional content and

stages also emerged as important variables in the study. Lipham and Hoeh's (1974, p. 155) definition of decision making as "an awareness of a problematic state of a system, influenced by information and values, reduced to competing alternatives, among which a choice is made based on estimated outcome status of the system," offered a departure point in reviewing theory related to the outcomes of the study. The work of Lipham and Daresh (1980) was considered regarding content. Contributions by Barnard (1938); Bross (1953); Cyert and March (1963); and Simon (1960) were reviewed concerning decision stages. Additionally, research by Alutto and Belasco (1972); Eye, Lipham, and Netzer (1965); and Speed (1979) was reviewed regarding decision involvement as a result of grounded practice identified in the school.

As Speed (1979) suggested, each aspect of decision involvement must be considered from the staff's perceptions in schools that allow for consensus decision making. Moreover, across the issues of decision involvement, participation must be viewed as authentic. As with leadership and change, an appropriate degree of decision involvement should correspond with congruent change phases and leadership acts.

Implications for practice emerge in three areas. First, blanket involvement dictated by a school's organizational plan ignores research findings that suggest decision involvement should be a managed process that fits each decisional situation. Second,

the principal and other leaders must be perceived as allowing the decision involvement process to be legitimate. Third, the degree of decision involvement as described in the implications regarding leadership and change should be assessed against the current change phase of the organization.

Motivation Theory

Evidence of Herzberg's (1966) hygiene and motivator factors emerged from grounded practice in the school. Evidence of dissatisfaction associated with hygiene factors suggested that hygiene factors remain dissatisfiers unless removed and therefore are linear in nature. Evidence of dissatisfaction associated with motivators suggested that motivators are potentially curvilinear, and thus even motivators can become hygiene factors.

The implication of this is that in addition to removing dissatisfaction associated with hygiene factors leaders must avoid making motivators so intense that they then become hygiene factors.

Organizational Climate Theory

Grounded practice in West High School confirmed Halpin and Croft's (1967) research regarding open climates in organizations. The decentralized organization of the school and the principal's behaviors were perceived as responsible for the open climate.

School organizations that value the outcomes of open climates can achieve them through decentralized organizations and

principal behaviors that are congruent with Halpin and Croft's characteristics of principal behaviors that promote open climates.

Grounded Theory

The central conclusion of the study was the recognized interaction of grounded practice across the dimensions of leadership, change, and decision involvement. Essentially, grounded practice suggested that organizational change is most functional if leadership styles and stages are congruent with the needs of the school's current change phase and if the degree of decision involvement also meets the needs of the change phase.

The implication is that school leadership should assess the organization regarding the dominant change phase and apply the most effective leadership and degree of decision involvement to the phase as described in the discussion regarding the implications for change, decision making, and leadership.

Implications for Further Research

More research, both qualitative and quantitative, is needed to confirm the leader-member theory of change phases. Moreover, instruments need to be developed that would allow a school staff to assess their organization's current stage phase, and/or a specific program's change phase.

Regarding administrative structure, research needs to be conducted in decentralized organizations with perceived high levels

of production and efficiency. Again, researchers could take advantage of both qualitative and quantitative methods.

Studies of schools with new and/or expanded roles should be conducted to gain an understanding of strategies used to develop congruence about role expectations and need-dispositions among the various reference groups in a school.

Studies are needed to test the linkage among appropriate leader styles and stages with the proposed leader-member change phase theory. Another area of potential research would be to investigate the impact of leader authenticity on school climate and participative decision making.

The theory of leader-member change phases and appropriate degrees of decision involvement should be investigated through quantitative research. Moreover, efforts to develop valid instruments mentioned earlier to assess organization and program change phases could be linked to efforts regarding the assessment of corresponding degrees of decision involvement.

The present study revealed a potential curvilinear relationship regarding motivators identified by Herzberg (1966) in that they appeared at times to become hygiene factors. Research should be designed to test these suggested relationships.

Grounded practice in the present study revealed a concern about leader authenticity that should be pursued in future research efforts regarding organizational climate. The concept of authenticity emerged concerning leader behavior pertaining to decision

involvement which indicates the need for studies of the relationship between school climate, decision involvement, and leader authenticity. The proposed model of the relationship between leadership, change, and decision involvement lends itself to further research efforts utilizing both qualitative and quantitative methods.

Regarding the methodology, two strategies deserve further attention. First, the research team concept allowed for continual perception checks and prevented the researchers from being led astray. Additionally, the team approach gave the researcher the ability to assess various respondent groups as they were affected by the same issues, and to view the impact of the issue on the various respondent groups. Second, the technique of checking field propositions toward the end of the research effort with a cross-section of respondents proved very helpful. This allowed the researchers an opportunity to validate the propositions and modify them as required.

Finally, the research methods utilized in this study and in the companion studies by Artis (1980) and Zimman (1980) offer advantages to further educational research efforts. The ethnographic case study approach allows researchers to view the dynamic interplay of variables in an organization's entirety. This study attempts to explain interrelationships as perceived by those interviewed, as observed by the research team, and as gleaned from

historical documents pertaining to the school's operation. The grounded theory derived should provide other research efforts the bases to verify, refine and/or modify proposed relationships among variables identified in this study.

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APPENDIX A

ABSTRACT OF THE PROPOSED STUDY

ABSTRACT OF THE PROPOSED STUDY

The major purposes of this study are: (1) to describe and explain fully the administrative organization, processes, and behavior in an innovative senior high school; and (2) to generate grounded theory about the administrative organization, processes, and behaviors in an innovative senior high school. The sample school chosen to participate in this study is a nationally known leader in implementing individualized learning programs which are compatible with the IGE/S model developed at the Wisconsin Research and Development Center (Klausmeier, 1979). The data of the study will be gathered by means of an ethnographic case study utilizing participant observation, open-ended interviewing, and document analysis. The researcher, together with two co-researchers, will spend three weeks on site and will participate in the social system of the school. At the end of the first week, the three researchers will retreat from the field and determine some tentative hypotheses based on the data. Those working hypotheses will be further tested against the data collected over the next two weeks, refined, limited, and finally stated as propositions. The study will be limited by the biases and abilities of the researcher, the time spent in collecting the data, and the perceptions of the respondents regarding the study. This study should provide a clear understanding of the administrative organization, processes, and behavior within an innovative senior high school, the impact

that the administration has on the school, and generalizable propositions that may be necessary for an innovative senior high school to be successful.

APPENDIX B

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

I. Study and Access Information

A. Identification of the researchers

1. Who we are
2. Affiliation with the Wisconsin Research and Development Center and relationship to the specific school

B. Relationship of the respondent to the study

1. Why you were selected
2. Anonymity of responses
3. How the responses will be used
4. Human subject release

C. Purpose of the study

1. General purpose of study: relationship to other educational research and to the specific school
2. Specific purpose of study: examination of the administrative organization, processes, and behavior in the specific school

II. Biographical Data

A. Educational history of respondent

B. Community/work history of respondent

C. Specific history of respondent at the school

D. Compare and contrast previous history with current experience.

III. Central Open-ended Questions

A. Discuss the strengths and positive aspects of the school

B. Discuss the weaknesses and concerns about the school

C. Discuss the major issues facing the school

IV. Focused Questions

A. Discuss the organization and structure of this school

1. Organization structure of the administration, staff and students
2. Leadership of the administrators
3. Decision-making processes utilized

B. Discuss the curriculum philosophy and design at this school

1. Individualized schooling
2. Student achievement/cognitive development
3. Student attitudes/affective development
4. Community learning experience and work experience
5. Basic skills development
6. Curriculum development
7. Resources adequate
8. Administrative role
9. Extracurricular activities
10. Schedule
11. Continuous progress
12. Research

C. Discuss the administration-staff relations

1. Teacher organizations
2. Participation in decision making
3. Supervision/evaluation
4. Staff socialization
5. Staffing needs
6. School climate
7. Morale

D. Discuss the teacher-advisor program

1. Teacher role
2. Guidance role
3. Discipline
4. Guidance and counseling

E. Discuss the administrative impact on the home-school-community relations

1. Communication
2. Student achievement reports
3. Participation/involvement
4. Administrative role
5. Sources of information

F. Discuss the evolution of the school

1. Change processes
2. Attitudes toward change
3. Relations with other agencies

4. Administrative role

5. Research and development

V. Check list--administrative impact on the following topics:

VI. Referrals

Who are some other knowledgeable and informed persons who would be willing to assist in this study and perhaps be interviewed?

Would you be willing to serve as a reference for me to that person by either writing, calling, or allowing me to use your name on introduction?

CALL BACK ACCESS--May we call you back to check for clarification or further data needs?

VII. Follow-up letter of thanks.

APPENDIX C

REVISED INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

REVISED INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

I. Study and Access Information

A. Identification of the researchers

1. Who we are

2. Affiliation with the Wisconsin Research and Development Center and relationship to the specific school

B. Relationship of the respondent to the study

1. Why you were selected

2. Anonymity of responses

3. How the responses will be used

4. Human subject release

C. Purpose of the study

1. General purpose of the study: relationship to other educational research and to the specific school

2. Specific purpose of study: examination of the administrative organization, processes, and behavior in the specific school

II. Biographical Data

A. Educational history of respondent

B. Community/work history of respondent

C. Specific history of respondent at the school

D. Compare and contrast previous history with current experience.

III. Central Open-ended Questions

A. Discuss the strengths and positive aspects of the school

B. Discuss the weaknesses and concerns about the school

C. Discuss the major issues facing the school

IV. Focused Questions

A. What do you think of the administrative organization of this school?

B. How are decisions made? What is your involvement?

C. How is the budget developed?

D. How would you characterize the leadership style of the principal?

E. How effective is the curriculum?

F. Who designs the curriculum?

G. How do the facilities affect the operation of the school?

H. What formal and informal communication channels are utilized?

I. What is your opinion of the teacher advisor program?

J. What is the role of counselors in the school?

K. How are parents informed and involved?

L. How are staff development needs met?

M. How are new staff members selected?

N. How would you rate the morale of the staff?

O. How do you feel about the past and projected changes?

APPENDIX D

INFORMED CONSENT FORM

Research Study

STUDIES OF ADMINISTRATION AND ORGANIZATION FOR INSTRUCTION:

ORGANIZATION OF THE SCHOOL FOR INDIVIDUALIZED INSTRUCTION

Informed Consent Form

The research study in which you are participating is designed to ascertain the administration's, teachers', students', and community's perceptions of the administrative organization, processes, and behavior in high schools. The purpose of the study is to utilize ethnographic research to analyze administrative impact on high schools to determine what administrative acts may be necessary for an innovative high school to be successful. In conducting the study, the researchers will interview selected individuals, observe school activities, and analyze pertinent school documents.

The anonymity of all participants is guaranteed and no individual, school, or school district will be identified in any reports of the research. It is expected that the results of this research will have both theoretical and practical value to the field of education and to the public at large.

The University of Wisconsin--Madison has informally assured the United States Department of Health, Education, and Welfare (DHEW) that it will assure the protection of any human being exposed to risk in any project or program that DHEW or any of its agencies has been requested to support. A copy of this assurance will be made available to you upon request.

There are no known discomforts or risks associated with any of the procedures in which you will participate and such procedures are in conformity with accepted professional practice.

Any questions you may have concerning the procedure to be utilized in this study will be answered. You are free to withdraw your consent and to discontinue participation in this study at any time.

Please sign below to indicate your consent to participate in the study.

_____ _____

Name Date

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